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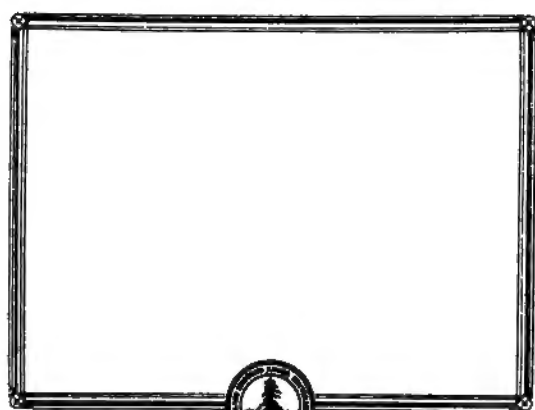
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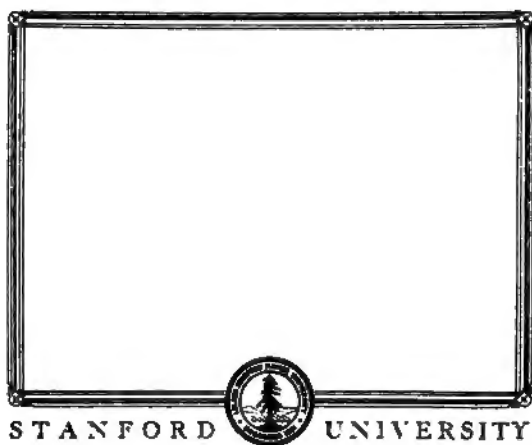
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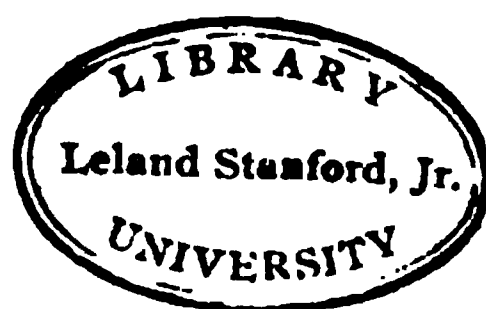
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PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN TURKEY.

AREA—POPULATION—RELIGION—GOVERNMENT.

The area and population of Turkey, according to the Statesman's Manual for 1868, are as follows :

DIVISIONS.	Area in Eng. sq. m.	Population.	Pop. to sq. m.
Turkey in Europe, - - -	207,438	15,500,000	75
Turkey in Asia, - - -	660,870	16,050,000	24
Turkey in Africa, - - -	943,740	3,800,000	4
Total, - - -	1,812,048	35,350,000	20

The various races of which the population of the empire in Europe, Asia, and Africa is composed, are thus classified in the census taken in 1844 :

RACES.	In Europe.	In Asia.	In Africa.	Total.
Ottomans, - - -	2,100,000	10,700 000	12,800,000
Greeks, - - -	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000
Armenians, - - -	400,000	2,000,000	2,400,000
Jews, - - -	70,000	80,000	150,000
Slaves, or Slavonians, -	6,200 000	6,200,000
Roumains, - - -	4 000,000	4,000,000
Albanians, - - -	1,500 000	1,500,000
Tartars, - - -	16,000	20,000	36,000
Arabs, - - -	885 000	3,800,000	4,685,000
Syrians and Chaldeans,	200,000	200,000
Druses, - - -	80,000	80,000
Kurds, - - -	100,000	1,000,000
Turkomans, - - -	85,000	85,000
Gipsies, - - -	214,000	214,000
Total, - - -	15,500,000	16,050,000	3,800,000	35 350,000

The adherents of the various religious creeds of the empire are roughly estimated to consist of the following numbers :

RELIGION.	In Europe.	In Asia.	In Africa.	Total.
Mussulmans, - - -	4,550,000	12,650,000	3,800,000	21,000,000
Greeks and Armenians,	10,000,000	3,000,000	13,000,000
Catholics, - - -	640,000	260,000	900,000
Jews, - - -	70 000	80,000	150,000
Other sects, - - -	240,000	60,000	300,000
Total, - - -	15,500,000	16 050,000	3,800,000	35,350,000

In this statement, the term Catholic is applied to the disciples of all the Eastern churches which acknowledge the authority of the Sec of Rome, although there are amongst them numerous differences in the matter of discipline and ceremonial. Of these Eastern Catholics there are :

1. Latins, or Catholics who use the Roman Liturgy, consisting of Greeks, Armenians, Bulgarians, Croats, and others, to the number of -	-	-	-	-	-	-	640,000
2. United Greeks,	-	-	-	-	-	-	25,000
3. United Armenians,	-	-	-	-	-	-	75,000
4. Syrians and United Chaldeans,	-	-	-	-	-	-	20,000
5. Maronites, under a Patriarch at Kanobin in Mount Lebanon,	-	-	-	-	-	-	140,000
							<u>260,000</u>
Total,	-	-	-	-	-	-	<u>900,000</u>

The above five religious denominations, together with the Protestants and Jews, are recognized by the Turkish government as independent religious communities, with the privilege of possessing their own ecclesiastical rule. The bishops and patriarchs of the Greeks and Armenians, and the "Chacham-Baschi," or high-rabbi of the Jews, possess, in consequence of those functions, considerable political power and independence.

The present sovereign of Turkey, (Abdul-Aziz,) is the thirty-second, in male descent, of the house of Othman, the founder of the empire in 1299, and the twenty-sixth sultan since the conquest of Constantinople. By the law of succession obeyed by the reigning family, every sovereign has the right to nominate his successor to the throne, within the circle of his own blood relations; but custom has changed this rule, to the effect that not the nearest, but the eldest male heir, may lay claim to the crown. Thus the late Sultan Abdul-Medjid, although he left fourteen children, six sons and eight daughters, was succeeded, not by his eldest son—twenty-one years of age at the date of his death—but by his brother.

The fundamental laws of the empire are based on the precepts of the Koran. The will of the sultan is absolute, in so far as it is not in opposition to the accepted truths of the Mahometan religion, as laid down in the sacred book of the Prophet. Next to the Koran, the laws of the "Mul-teka," a code formed of the supposed sayings and opinions of Mahomet, and the sentences and decisions of his immediate successors, are binding upon the sovereign as well as his subjects. Another code of laws, the "Canon nameh," formed by Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, from a collection of "hatti-sheriffs," or decrees, issued by him and his predecessors, is held in general obedience, but merely as an emanation of human authority. The Koran and the "Multeka" alone, both believed to be of divine origin, embody the fundamental laws of the State, and prescribe the action of the theocratic government.

A charter of liberties not yet fully executed, was granted by Sultan Abdul-Medjid to his subjects in the "Hatti-Humayoun" of February 18, 1856. The principal provisions of this imperial order are as follows:

"Full liberty of worship is guaranteed to every religious profession. No one can be forced to change his religion. No legal documents shall

acknowledge any inferiority of one class of Turkish subjects to another, in consequence of difference in religion, race, or language. All foreigners who obey the laws and pay the taxes, may possess landed property."

The legislative and executive authority is exercised, under the supreme direction of the sultan, by two high dignitaries, the Grand Vizier, the head of the temporal Government, and the "Sheik-ul-Islam," the head of the Church. Both are appointed by the sovereign, the latter with the concurrence of the "Ulema," a body comprising the clergy and chief functionaries of the law.

The Grand Vizier, as head of the government and representative of the sovereign, is president of the "Divan," or Ministerial Council, which is divided into nine departments, namely:

1. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs. 2. The Ministry of War. 3. The Ministry of Finance. 4. The Ministry of Marine. 5. The Ministry of Commerce, Agriculture, and Public Works. 6. The Ministry of Police. 7. The Ministry of Justice. 8. The Ministry of Public Instruction. 9. The Ministry of "Vakouf," or of the domains of the Church and of Charitable Institutions.

I. GOVERNMENT ACTION AND INSTITUTIONS.*

The Koran and Multeka encourage public education. It is a sacred maxim, that "the ink of the learned and the blood of martyrs are of equal value in the sight of heaven;" and that the world subsists by four principles, namely, "the science of the learned, the justice of princes, the prayers of the faithful, and the valor of the brave."

Until 1846, public instruction in Turkey was left to the action of religious communities and corporations, free from the supervision or interference of the State. The action of the State is still strictly subordinate and auxiliary. The government being a Mussulman government, its labors are chiefly directed to sustain what may be styled Mussulman education.

From the earliest conquests, the Osmanlee Sultans have assumed the character of patrons of learning. They have founded schools of learning, colleges, and libraries. The Sultan presides every year at the thanksgiving of the schools.

The Minister of Public instruction, (Mearif-i-Umumiye Nazari,) is one of the body of ministers, and is usually a member of the great council—a cabinet officer—having a department in the same building with the Ministries of Commerce, Agriculture, and Public Works. This office has lately been filled by men of the highest capacity and experience; among them, Edhem Pasha, Safvet Pasha, Kemal Effendi, and Subhi Bey. Edhem Pasha exercised a careful supervision over the schools and masters, and encouraged the introduction of improved books. Safvet Pasha was connected with the department nearly as much, and has been an ambassador in Paris. Kemal Effendi, who has been attached to both the Paris and

* Compiled from a paper read before the Statistical Society (London), November 10, 1867, by Hyde Clarke, Esq.; and printed in its Journal for December, 1867.

Berlin embassies, has himself compiled some school-books. He has one of the finest libraries in Constantinople. Subhi Bey, the present minister, makes public instruction his specialty, and is a writer on Mussulman statistics and numismatics. His essays have been translated into the French and German language.

Besides the Ministers of Public Instruction, some of the most distinguished public men have taken an active interest in promoting the different departments of the system of public instruction by the preparation of elementary school-books, and the examination of the best school-books of England, France, and Germany, and either translating them, or compiling books for the use of schools.

Among those who have been thus interested in promoting public instruction are, His Highness Fuad Pasha, the author of a Turkish grammar; His highness Prince Mustapha Faryl Pasha; Ahmed Vesik Effendi; Dervish Pasha, director-general of mines, educated in the schools of England and France; Munif Effendi, and others.

The Council of Public Instruction has recently been somewhat modified, a larger rayah element being introduced. The proportion of rayahs, or non-Mussulmen, in the council, is now large.

The council consists of two sections; the first under the presidency of the minister, with twelve Mussulman members, and having charge of the schools of the department; the second, presided over by Dervish Pasha, and having charge of the technical and superior schools, and consisting of sixteen members. They include, beside the grand translator of the Porte, Mekyatib Askeriye Nazari, director of the military schools; Mekyatib Tabibiye Nazari, director of the medical schools; Mekyatib Bahriye Nazari, director of the naval schools; Topji Mektebi Nazari, director of the artillery schools; also one Mussulman, three Greek, and two Armenian doctors, and an Armenian member, but only one Jewish member.

The labors of the ministry are as follows:

- a. First, the improvement of the national, elementary, mosque or ecclesiastical endowed schools.
- b. Second, the establishment of separate girls' schools.
- c. Third, the establishment of the rushdiyeh, or grammar school, or town college, in any great town of the empire.
- d. Fourth, the conduct of the normal and special schools of the ministry.
- e. Fifth, a consultative action as to the superior special schools for medicine, the army, artillery, and navy.
- f. Sixth, the supply of books, maps, and school requisites for all schools.
- g. Seventh, the promotion of the university, museum, public lectures, literary societies, &c.
- h. Eighth, the improvement of public libraries of the metropolis.
- i. Ninth, the establishment of examinations, and competitive examinations.

a. Improvement of Elementary Schools.—The government does not interfere with the rayah schools in their freedom of action. It assists, when necessary, by granting sites, and sometimes buildings. All school buildings are exempt from taxation. The modes of improving elementary schools will be further pointed out in the section II. regarding Mussulman schools.

b. Improvement in Mussulman female education has made little advance. Mothers appear to prefer the mixed schools for their daughters. The hajah is considered the proper person to instruct. The rushdiyeh, or female academy of Constantinople, had only ninety pupils in 1866, with three male professors, and ladies for women's work.

c. The special work of the ministry is the establishment of the rushdiyeh mektebi, corresponding to the grammar school, and the French college imperial.

The rushdiyeh of the metropolis, including that for girls, are thirteen in number, in the city and suburbs. The two chief are in the ministry; the others are in or near mosques, alongside the colleges.

The schools are provided with teachers for Turkish, Arabic, Persian, religious instruction, history, geography, arithmetic, mathematics, book-keeping, and drawing. French is taught in the special schools.

The masters are strictly examined, and are chosen for their competency. The salary is such as to draw good men from the class of hajahs—school-masters.

The number of schools has not increased for seven years; but there has been an increase in the number of pupils, and an improvement in the corps of teachers. In 1866, the number of scholars, including girls, was 1,652. These schools are now educating the sons of men in official stations, and of the more intelligent classes, and are securing great public interest.

There are now, in European Turkey, forty-six of these schools, the most rapid increase within the last few years, being fifty per cent. from 1860 to 1866.

There is no return of the number of scholars; but the minimum average is supposed to be 90, giving an aggregate in 1866, of 4,140. Adrianople is the only city having two schools. In some of the provinces the schools are open to all sects, and are attended by all.

In Asiatic Turkey, the number of schools in 1860, was only seven, in the cities of Broosah, Rhodes, Yuzghat, Smyrna, Izmid, Kara Hissan, and Kastamooni. The increase has been, in six years, from seven to thirty-six.

All attempts of the government to introduce the teaching of European languages have failed.

d. There are some special schools attached to the ministry, as the normal schools for training teachers for the rushdiyeh schools, and the preparatory schools of the civil service. The pupils in these are of all sects,

and are taught French in addition to the general course. The study of law is particularly attended to with a view to train clerks and judges for the new criminal courts and tribunals of commerce. There are no returns of these pupils.

e. The great special schools are appendages of the army and navy departments, and the action of the ministry of public instruction is only indirect.

The imperial school of medicine is on a large scale, and trains all sects for the medical service of the army and navy. The professors are Mussulmen, Greeks, Armenians, and Levantians, with some Europeans. This is almost the only public school which the Jews enter. The number of pupils is upwards of four hundred.

The imperial school of military science is large, with about five hundred pupils, besides the preparatory department, or cadet school, of from two to three hundred. The course includes general education, French, and special military instruction. Except the teachers of languages, the professors are Mussulmans, trained in England or France. The school graduates about one hundred officers annually.

There are four divisional schools in the provinces,—two in Europe and two in Asia. That at Damascus is an artillery school.

There are generally about twenty-six officers, training for the staff, at Paris; and the engineer and artillery officers are trained at Woolwich, England. The trained Turkish officers of the staff compare favorably with those of most armies of Europe.

There is an imperial naval school at Halki, the officers of which have been trained in the English navy, and many speak English. The engineers are either English, or Mussulmans, some of the latter having been trained at Woolwich.

Attempts have been made to form classes in civil engineering, and found a school of agriculture.

f. Government has recently published the requisite books for the elementary schools, and also for some of the special schools, as well as geographical maps. The new codes supply text-books of law; the superior schools are supplied with apparatus. Facilities are given for the publication of newspapers, and their transmission by post.

g. The university, planned in 1850, has not yet gone into operation, although a museum of geology, library, (Oriental and European,) chemical laboratory, and set of philosophical apparatus, have been gradually accumulated. In this building, men of eminence, as Ahmed Vefik Effendi, and Dervish Pasha, have given courses of lectures on natural and moral science, history, &c., to crowded audiences.

An academy of the most distinguished scholars was formed for the promotion of Turkish literature, under the name of Anjuman-i-Danish, in 1851, now numbering twenty-seven members. One of its objects is to produce a new history of the country.

Another valuable society is that formed by Munif Effendi, called the Osmanlee Scientific Society. Government has given them a house, in which they have a newsroom, a library, and class and lecture rooms.

The imperial academy of medicine consists chiefly of the Christian practitioners in the metropolis. It receives a subvention of six hundred pounds from the government, and has a reading room and library, and publishes a journal.

k. There are public libraries attached to the mosques and colleges throughout the empire, including books on theology, law, and history, in Arabic and Turkish.

In Constantinople there is a large imperial library in the Palace of the Seraglio, and forty others. The total number of volumes is 72,000; the largest number in any one library is 14,000. But as these are written on a stenographic system, they contain an immense mass of matter. The government is having all the public libraries catalogued.

i. Entrance into the military, naval, and medical schools is now gained by competitive examinations. Educational tests are now generally required for entrance into the civil service. Formerly any one might be an official. A secretary did the writing, and the principal applied his seal. For the Foreign office, a knowledge of the French language is required; also for the military and staff; for the naval and staff, a knowledge of English.

II. MUSSULMAN ESTABLISHMENTS.

They rest on the old institutions of the country; they are most widely distributed, and upon them the Ministry of Public Instruction chiefly operate.

The schools on which the government acts, consist of the superior and elementary schools.

Superior instruction consists of a minute course of training in theology and law, in colleges, under professors and tutors, and by self-instruction. It may be accompanied by a knowledge of Turkish, Arabic, and Persian literature and history, but is not necessarily.

Each large city has attached to its great mosque, or mosques, a medresseh, or college. Of these, there are, in Adrianople and Bagdad, forty or fifty. Formerly, these establishments were flourishing, and were well endowed, but are now generally out of repair, except at Constantinople, where there are about three hundred colleges, and a large body of students, who are chiefly maintained by a class of establishments in the nature of soup kitchens, which daily furnish food in Constantinople for eight thousand persons.

A college in Constantinople has attached to it a body of professors, and a library, consisting chiefly of theological and law books, with no European books, and none on what is called useful knowledge.

Part of the students in Constantinople are the sons of the ulema,* others are poor scholars from the country.

*Originally signifying *the wise men*. The college or corporation of the Turkish hierarchy, viz: the imams, muftis, and cadis.—[Brande.]

The government does not interfere with these colleges.

From the lower members of the students of the country colleges, the village school-masters are obtained. Where there is a mosque, and sometimes where there is none, there is to be found the school and the hajah, who is regarded as a person of dignity, being the school-master of the boys and girls, leader at prayers and funerals, legal adviser, conveyancer, &c.; and to these, and similar pursuits, he may add medicine, in the shape of religious charms.

The schools are generally small; the buildings, in the country, are of wood; in the cities, of stone. They are open to boys and girls, and by law, all children are compelled to go to school at six years of age. In practice, however, the girls of the lower classes are not sent to school, nor even the boys. The girls of the professional class, or the ulema, almost invariably go to school. The instruction is the same for girls as for boys, though not always carried so far. No child is excluded by poverty, as it is an holy duty to minister to the poor. The fees are small and optional in the country, but range higher, with a fashionable school-master, in a city. The business of a school-master gives more honor than wealth.

The school is an introduction to the world, closely connected with the pursuits of life, the instruction consisting of periodical prayers and the exercises of religion, reading and writing in the character common to the Turkish, Arabic, and Persian, formulas of prayers, passages from the Koran, the moral of duty between man and man, salutations, and modes of behavior. A primer and Koran afford the necessary apparatus. To this the whole instruction of many children is limited.

At a further stage, instruction is given in applying this knowledge to Turkish. A book called the "Insha," is the common manual, containing all kinds of letters, petitions, documents, and accounts, in the reka, or ordinary written character, sometimes supplemented by a species of court-hand.

This course teaches orthography, which is simple and unsettled, the art of correspondence and the transaction of business, under a man who is himself a practitioner. This is generally accompanied by instruction in arithmetic, and sometimes, book-keeping. There is no geography or history.

The government action is limited, in a direct shape, to supplying cheap school-books, of the kinds approved in the schools.

Its indirect action upon the public is more powerful.

Distinct from the colleges, are the schools of the rushdiyeh, which are higher than the elementary schools.

In Constantinople, where government is supported by public opinion, it is able to act most efficiently.

What has been said as to elementary schools, refers chiefly to Turkish districts. European Mussulmans, not of the Turkish race, know little more than their prayers, being seldom well trained. They speak several languages besides their own,—Bulgarian, Bosnian, or Servian, and Alba-

nian, and in the island of Candia, Greek. They can seldom read and write Turkish, if they speak it decently, and do not know the Arabic character. The Albanian and Candiote Mussulmans are more familiar with the Greek character.

The Arabs receive instruction in their native language, caring little for Turkish. Schools are better attended among the Arabs, and the Arab schools send up many school-masters to the north.

The Koord Mussulmans are not well taught. They use the Persian language for correspondence.

Great differences are found among the races of Turkey in their educational propensities, including the Arabs, who are a reading people; the Turks and Greeks, who are less so; the Armenians, far less; the Bulgarians, Bosnians, and Albanians, Mussulmans and Christians, Koords, Jews, and Christians, none of whom are reading people.

The progress of Mussulman education, under all these circumstances, notwithstanding the compulsory law, is very slow.

M. Heuschling has given a statement that of one hundred Mussulman children in Turkey, ninety-five receive a good elementary education. This is thought to be too high an estimate. In 1860, the official returns gave 279 Mussulman schools, with 9,975 boys, and 6,787 girls; total, 16,752, in the city of Constantinople.

III. ORTHODOX SCHOOLS.

The members of the Orthodox religion constitute one of the Five Nations of Rayaha. They are allowed to conduct their own affairs within their own community, the Patriarch of Constantinople being the recognized official head.

The Orthodox or Greek church includes the Greeks, Bulgarians, Bosnians, Wallachians, Moldavians, Servians, some Albanians, and some Syrians.

The native Greeks generally speak Turkish. Schools are being generally established among them. The school buildings are good, and the masters well paid, being competent men, trained in the University of Athens, or Academies of Greece. In the large cities of Turkey, the children of the wealthy are trained in private colleges, and boarding schools, and receive a liberal education. Female education is also made prominent. The language used in all these schools is the modern Greek.

The public schools are maintained out of the funds of the church or community. The fees are moderate; the poor are educated free. The schools, hospitals, and churches of the Greeks are well administered. The school-masters and mistresses are well paid.

Elementary education among the Greeks owes much to schools formed by the Church Missionary Society.

The children are exceedingly apt and fond of attending school; but as the language of the schools and of the household are not the same, the fruit is not permanent.

The government exercises no interference, and grants no aid.

There are no statistics available; but evidently a large proportion of adults in the towns can read and write; in the country they can not, though the children are now sent to school.

IV. ARMENIAN SCHOOLS.

The Armenians are an Indo-European people, constituting the second of the nations.

In common with every sect in Turkey, their ritual language is a dead language.

The mass of the Armenians in old Armenia are very ignorant; but those in the western districts are arousing to new efforts for improvement in this respect, particularly in Constantinople, Smyrna, and Broossah.

Their schools are kept in good buildings, taught by men of learning, and the pupils in the elementary and higher schools are taught gratuitously, whether rich or poor. The richer girls are sent to private schools. The influence of American Missionaries has been very great upon these schools.

The school language is the modern Armenian. Turkish is taught, and in the higher classes, French. The English is also taught. Evening schools for adults have recently been established in Constantinople.

V. CATHOLIC OR LATIN SCHOOLS.

The direction of catholic affairs and schools is chiefly in the hands of foreign priests, the funds being supplied by foreign missionary bodies, the Congregation of the Propaganda, and the Mekhitarists. The French government contributes 40,000 francs a year. The Austrian government has been the great protector of the Armenian Catholics. Their colleges and schools are ably conducted by the celebrated order of Mekhitarists, who give instruction in Armenian, French, and Turkish, and have furnished some of the best Turkish scholars among the Christians in the government service.

In the great towns are Propaganda colleges, on the French system, in which French is the chief language for instruction. The household, or outdoor language, is Arabic, or bad Greek.

The Roman Catholic Albanians have a few schools only, the North Albanians being instructed by Italian Monks.

VI. JEWISH SCHOOLS.

The Jews may be divided into Arab-speaking and Turkish-speaking Jews, though Spanish, modified into Italian, is the national language. In Syria the schools are active; the children are taught to speak Arabic, and are acquainted with the Hebrew.

The schools are poor, and school-masters poorly paid. In Turkey proper the Jews use Spanish or Italian as a household language; correspondence is generally carried on in Spanish or Turkish, written in rabbinical script.

The schools are ill-constructed and dirty, and the pupils commonly learn only the Hebrew character.

As the Jews can not read and write the Turkish language, they are not employed in the government civil service, and a few only in the medical service.

The loss to the government from the failure to educate and employ this large population is very great.

In Smyrna, a Jewish college has been established, by the efforts of some Jews in that city, with aid from wealthy foreign Jews. The results have been very encouraging.

At Constantinople, Count Nazim Commodo and his friends, have sustained a college, which is now supplying the government with employees.

VII. PROTESTANT SCHOOLS.

Many Armenians have embraced protestantism under the influence of American Missionaries, the patronage of the English Ambassador, Lord Stratford, and the American Ministers.

The influence of the American Missionaries—men and women—has been very beneficial among the Armenians, their services not being so much devoted to theological propagandism, as to rendering service as physicians, teachers, and social reformers.

There are schools established wherever there are Armenians, and these have had a great influence on other schools. The study of the English language, and of the useful arts, has been greatly promoted by them.

VIII. FOREIGN SCHOOLS.

There are many foreign establishments for promoting education. In addition to the Propaganda, the Mekhitarists, the Society for Converting the Jews, and the American Missionaries, already referred to, and the Church Missionary Society, which has improved the elementary instruction among the Greeks. There have been efforts made also among the Chaldean Christians.

The English have done much by their private schools, as at the English college in Smyrna, the college of Bowonabat, the school of Rev. Mr. Curtis, and the ladies' school patronized by Lady Stratford, at Constantinople.

The college of Bebek, under the direction of the Rev. Dr. Hamlin and the American Missionaries, is an institution which tends to promote instruction throughout the country.

The German Protestant Deaconesses Institution has established schools at Smyrna and elsewhere, which have had a great influence on the better education of girls. Not only the English and American children are taught, but Armenians, Greeks, and Jewesses, without fear as to their religious belief. This Institution is supported by the Queen dowager of Prussia, and consists of German, and a few English ladies.

There are also some schools from which the Catholic clergy are excluded, and in which the Italian Jews take part.

The Greek clergy controlled the education of the Christian inhabitants before the Crimean war. They did not foster, but rather opposed intellectual culture, particularly among the Bulgarians, whose language was banished from the schools. Since that time public education has become very general throughout the provinces.

There are now schools in almost every town and village inhabited by Christians. In the small towns and villages the instruction is of the simplest kind; in the cities and large towns, except Adrianople, there are elementary schools as well as gymnasia, in which the Lancasterian system prevails. In Philippopolis the Greek and Bulgarian communities have good schools, and the people are liberal in supporting them. The professors are paid from 100*l* to 200*l* per annum.

Schools are now established in many towns, for girls, under the direction of teachers from Greece, Servia, Russia, and America.

TABLE I.—*Elementary Schools, Constantinople and Environs.*

NAME OF SCHOOL.	1860-68. PUPILS.			
	Number.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Mussulman Schools, - - -	280	9,975	6,782	16,757
Orthodox, (Greek,) Schools, -	77	6,497		6,497
Armenian Schools, - - -	37	6,528		6,528
Catholic and Latin Schools, -	8	509		509
Jewish Schools, - - -	44	2,552		2,552
Protestant Schools, - - -	5	51	31	82
Karaite Schools, - - -	3	100		100
	454	26,212	6,813	33,025

TABLE II.—*Mekteb-i-Rushdiyyeh, or Higher Grammar Schools in Constantinople and Environs, (including scholars in the preparatory special schools.)*

SCHOOLS.	NUMBER OF SCHOLARS.	
	1865.	1866.
Dar-ul-Mearif, - - - - -	204	242
“ “ - - - - -	110	113
Sultan Bayazid, - - - - -	204	150
Shadzadeh Bashi, - - - - -	108	158
Faikh, - - - - -	110	175
Daood Pasha, - - - - -	81	78
Kassim Pasha, or Galata, - - - - -	73	110
Beshiktash, - - - - -	114	148
Uskudai, Skutari, - - - - -	89	180
Eyoob, - - - - -	79	86
Fazli Pasha, or Rumeli Hissar, - - - - -		62
Buglerbegi, - - - - -	60	70
Girls' Rushdiyyeh, - - - - -	70	90
	1,302	1,662

TABLE III.—*List of Mekteb-i-Rushdiyyeh.*

EUROPE.

Bosna Serai.	Dramah.
Travnik.	Galeboli, Gallipoli.
Isvornik.	Sofecah, Sofia.
Behkeh.	Berat.
Yeni Bazar.	Prizreen.
Banalooka.	Salonik, Thessalonika.
Mostar.	Widdeen, Widin.
Takvor Taghi, (Redosto.)	Gnestondil,
Yeni Sheher.	Zoghra Ateek, or Eski Zeghra.
Yanina Janina.	Samakov, founded 1860.
Monastir.	Nevrokob, "
Ishkodrah, (Skutari, Albania.)	Limani, "
Delvino.	Okhri, Okhrida, founded 1864.
Neesh, Nizza.	Silivri, "
Kandia	Guerejeh, "
Haneeyah, founded 1862.	Leskovik, "
Retimo, Kandia, founded 1861.	Varna, "
Lofchah.	Mejidieh, in the Dobrujah, founded 1864.
Roosjook, Ruschuk.	Bazarjik, founded 1864.
Seerooz, Serres.	Midellu, Mytilene Island, founded 1864.
Edrineh, Adrianople.	Argri, founded 1864.
" second school, founded 1861.	Argob, "
Filibeh, Philippopoli.	Azizieh, founded 1865.

ANATOLIA, OR ASIA.

Broossah, Broussa.	Sakeez, Scio Island, founded 1863.
Rodos, Rhodes.	Mosool, "
Yuzghat.	Samsoon, "
Izmeer, Smyrna.	Van, founded 1864.
Izmeed, Ismid.	Sinoob, Sinope, founded 1864.
Kara Hissar Sharki.	Yenisheehar Broosa, founded 1864.
Kastamooni.	Amasia, founded 1864.
Tarabolis Gharb, Tripoli in Barbary.	Gueveh, "
Sham Sherif, Damascus, founded 1860.	Balukeser, "
Haleb, Aleppo, "	Cibris, Cyprus, "
Alaya	Boli, "
Isbartah, Sparta of Pisidia, found 1860.	Erzinjan, founded 1865.
Bigha, founded 1860.	Kemakh, "
Tarabolis Sham, Tripoli in Syria found- ed 1862.	Kars, "
Terabezoon, Trebizohd, founded 1862.	Sefrihissar, "
Sivas, founded 1863.	Angorah, Ancyra, founded 1865.
Tarsoos, Tarsus, founded 1863.	Adah Bazari, "
Lefkeh, founded 1863.	Bashkalaah, "
	Adana, "

TABLE IV.—*Mekteb-i-Rushdigeih Totals.*

DATE.	Constanti- nople. Schools.	Scholars.	Europe. Schools.	Asia. Schools.	Europe and Asia. Scholars.	TOTAL.	
						Schools.	Scholars.
1850	10	5	5	17	1,000
1859	13	2,256	..	3,381
1860	13	1,125	31	7	2,790	51	3,925
1861	13	1,125	34	12	3,125	59	4,250
1862	13	1,125	34	13	3,125	60	4,250
1863	13	1,125	34	14	61	4,250
1864	13
1865	13	1,302	45	29	87	*6,892
1866	13	1,662	46	36	95	*7,592

* Partly estimated.

TABLE V.—*List of Superior Special Schools.*

SCHOOLS.	PUPILS.	
	1862.	1865.
Imperial Academy of Military Sciences, - -	341	492
“ “ Supplementary School, - -	260	318
Ottoman Staff School at Paris, - -	26	26
Imperial Guard, Military School at Broossah, - -	80	76
2d Division, “ Edrineh, - -	80	97
3d “ “ Monastir, - -	80	88
5th “ (Artillery,) Damascus, - -	65	62
Imperial Artillery and Engineering School, - -	32	35
“ Naval School at Halki, - -	8	11
“ School of Medicine, - -	400	400

TABLE VI.—*Public Mussulman Libraries of Constantinople.*

	Volumes.
Seraglio, exclusive of Manuscripts, - - - -	1,500
Abul Fatih in Sultan Mehemed's Mosque, - - - -	5,271
Sultan Bayazid Mosque, - - - -	3,304
Sultan Suliman Mosque, (Sulimaniye,) - - - -	2,000
Sultan Selim and Sultan Mustapha, (Lalalu Mosque,) - - - -	4,000
Sultan Osman Mosque, (Osmaniye,) - - - -	5,826
Sultan Mahmood in Aya Sofia, - - - -	6,292
Sultan Abdul Hamid, College of Hamidiye Mosque, - - - -	1,482
Lala Ismael Effendi, - - - -	892
Sultan Ahmed in the Yena Jami, - - - -	1,382
Great Aya Sofia, Seid Effendi, - - - -	3,982
Kiuprili Mehemed Pasha and Fazil Ahmed Pasha, (Grand Viziers,) - - - -	3,245
Sheik-ul-Islam, Asher Effendi, - - - -	4,828
Shahzadeh Mosque, Shehid Ali Pasha, - - - -	6,826
Shahzadeh Mosque, Sundry Donations, - - - -	1,235
Shahzadeh Mosque, Amad Ibrahim Pasha, - - - -	1,152
Atif Effendi, - - - -	1,995
Hekim Ogloo Pasha Mosque, - - - -	1,968
Grand Vizier Mehemed Raghib Pasha, - - - -	1,451
Jarah Effendi, - - - -	2,182
Mehemed Murad Effendi, - - - -	1,926
Hajji Bahrin College, - - - -	1,233
Eyoob Khosrev Pasha, - - - -	1,168
Eyoob Shehid Mehemed Pasha, - - - -	483
Amoujah Hassan Pasha, - - - -	541
Mustafa Pasha, - - - -	433
Chorluli Aali Pasha, - - - -	450
Sheikh Murad Effendi, - - - -	526
Hajji Beshi Agha, - - - -	219
Servili College, Mustafa Aga, - - - -	297
Chelebi Abdullah Agha, - - - -	296
Eyoob, Mahrushah Valideh Sultan, - - - -	287
Mehemed Aga Mosque, - - - -	210
Omar Effendi, - - - -	147
Musih Aali Pasha, - - - -	158
Elhaj Mustafa Effendi, - - - -	135
Tevfik Effendi, - - - -	481
Cazasker Mustafa Effendi, - - - -	194
Suliha Khanum, - - - -	273
Sultan Ahmed Mosque, Sundry Donations, - - - -	1,373

- The following appears as a supplement to Mr. Hyde Clarke's paper, on Public Instruction in Turkey, from a communication of His Excellency, Subhi Bey, Minister of Public Instruction, November 26, 1867:

LOCATION.	Schools	Males.	Females	Total.
STAMBOUL AND SUBURBS.				
Rushdiyeh, - - - - -	12	1,450	1,450
Mussulman Primary Schools, - -	279	13,341	7,449	21,729
Non-Mussulman, - - - - -	144	16,217	16,217
				<hr/> 32,474
Normal School, - - - - -	1	60	60
Aklam de (public administration), -	1	65	65
Civil Engineering School, - - -	1	55	55
School of languages, for Turkish, French, Greek, and Bulgarian, - - -	1	25	222
	<hr/> 439	<hr/> 31,273	<hr/> 7,469	<hr/> 32,724
ROUMELIA AND ANATOLIA.				
Rushdiyeh Schools, - - - - -	100	6,240	6,240
Mussulman Primary Schools, - -	10,229	224,137	119,185	347,342
Non-Mussulman, - - - - -	2,351	94,873	10,314	111,127
	<hr/> 12,680	<hr/> 325,240	<hr/> 129,500	<hr/> 443,280
Grand total returned, - - - -		<hr/> 501,380		

In a document issued by M. Monier, in Paris, the relative condition of different countries in respect to schools and illiteracy, is represented on a map by lines and shading, passing from entire blackness, the lowest degree of school destitution, to perfect white, the highest state of general education. On this map Turkey appears as black as ink can make it. On this map, and on some comments of the London Times on the new Law of Public Instruction issued in 1869, Mr. Clark, the author of the paper from which the foregoing account of the state of schools and education in Turkey is mainly compiled, makes the following comments:

"As Turkey is inhabited by a number of different races, professing various religions, speaking dissimilar languages, and most of them having distinct administrative institutions, there is a very great diversity in the state of education, and it is only possible slowly and steadily to bring about a general improvement. The Turkish Mussulmans, the Arab Mussulmans, Jews, and Christians, and the Greek-speaking Christians, have a very fair position for education. The Armenians are partially provided, but the Mussulman and Christian population of the European provinces are in a very backward state.

The government, by the help of an organized Ministry of Public Instruction, has been for years engaged in the work of reform, but encounters great difficulty from the bigotry and antipathy to association of all the populations, and the seditious tendencies of some. It is not merely that the Christian will not associate with the Mussulman in education, but the Mussulman is opposed to the government infidel and godless schools; in fact, the Ottoman government has to contend with Irish difficulties.

The government has decreed compulsory education, but public opinion is not

* These figures do not include the four special schools returned below in the same column, nor the female rushdiyeh.

favorable to its enforcement. It has published improved school-books, which it has the greatest trouble in getting Mussulman or Christian schoolmasters to use; teachers prefer scriptural instruction to profane geography, history, arithmetic or book-keeping. The Greeks and Armenians are employed in building up separatist nationalities, and eschew what may promote community. The Jews are essentially separatists.

The government, however, perseveres and makes progress. In Bulgaria and Bosnia, Mussulmans and Christians show a disposition to frequent the same schools, as they are of the same race, and speak the same language. The instruction of the great body of the population, the Mussulmans, by means of the endowed schools, has been much improved, but there is great indisposition shown towards the middle schools by the Mussulmans in the provinces, and the Christians will not frequent them. The new lyceum at Constantinople has been excommunicated by most of the clerical authorities; but this and the special schools are taking a large number of pupils, because they lead to public employment.

One main change in the amended law is the proposed abandonment of the mixed education of boys and girls in the same schools, which takes place among the Mussulmans; and public opinion would revolt against Mussulman girls going to the same school with Christian as well as Mussulman boys.

The Ministry of Public Instruction has for years enlisted the sympathies of the statesmen of Turkey, and has been under the guidance of learned and zealous men. I would particularly name Edhem Pasha and Kemal Effendi. The president of the new council, Munif Effendi, is a distinguished advocate of popular education. About eight years ago, the Society of Arts sent him a set of books for the literary institution he founded in Constantinople, and which I saw in the library there.

Some of the schools of the Greek and Armenian communities in Turkey are equal to anything in Europe.

I do not myself look forward to any sudden change in education in Turkey, but to the continuous course of improvement. As the Porte is giving an increased share in the general government to the Christian and Jewish communities, it is determined to take advantage of the occasion to get a greater hold on the administration of denominational education.

Perhaps the greatest practical benefit resulting from the amended law will be that the Ministry of Public Instruction will get a better share out of the budget, and so be able to act with more vigor on the endowed schools of the Mussulmans and those of the various communities."

The new School Code of 1869 is so remarkable a document that we give it entire in an English version, from a copy in the French language, communicated by His Ex. Blacque Bey, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at Washington.

LAW ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN TURKEY.

Promulgated, 1869.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.

§1. The schools of the Turkish Empire are divided into two kinds; *the first* comprises the public schools, the superintendence and administration of which belong exclusively to the government; the *second* comprises other schools, founded and maintained by individuals or communities, and placed under the general supervision of the government.

I. PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

§ 2. Instruction in the public schools is divided in the following manner:
A. Elementary instruction, given in the primary and primary-superior schools.
B. Secondary instruction, given in the preparatory schools and lycea. *C.* Superior instruction, given in the special schools. The public schools of the empire are accordingly divided into five classes, viz: 1, Primary schools (*Sebgian*), 2, Primary-superior schools (*Ruchdié*); 3, Preparatory schools (*Idadié*); 4, Lycea (*Sultanié*); 5, Special schools (*Alyé*).

A. Elementary Instruction.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

§ 3. Every ward (*quartier*), and every village, and if necessary, one or several wards, as well as one or several villages in common, must have at least one primary school. In the wards and villages whose population is mixed, there must be two separate schools, one Mohammedan, and one non-Mohammedan.

§ 4. The expense of construction and keeping in repair the primary schools, as well as the salaries of the teachers, is borne by the communes.

§ 5. The teachers of primary schools will be selected and nominated in conformity with the existing regulations.

§ 6. The course of instruction in the primary schools will cover four years, and will comprise the following subjects:

The alphabet according to the new method; the Koran; the Tadjvid and books of morals; Catechism; Writing; Elements of arithmetic; Elements of Turkish history; Elements of geography; Epitome of practical knowledge.

Non-Mohammedan children will be instructed in the catechism and rites of their respective religions under the direction of their pastors or priests, and will follow these courses generally in their respective languages.

Scholars who at the expiration of the four years wish to learn the Koran by heart, will have the opportunity to do this by prolonging their studies at school till the object in view is attained.

§ 7. If an academic council deems it necessary to change or modify the course of instruction pursued in the primary schools, it will make application to the minister of public instruction, who, after having conferred with the imperial council of public instruction, will act on it.

§ 8. There will be no other holidays than the Mohammedan and non-Mohammedan festive days, and the anniversary of the Sultan's accession to the throne. All other days the children will be obliged to attend regularly the morning and evening classes; and the teachers are likewise to be punctually at their posts every day.

§ 9. Public instruction is obligatory throughout the whole Empire, for girls from the age of six to ten years, and for boys from six to eleven years.

§ 10. The justices of the peace of the wards and villages will keep a register, on which are inscribed the names of all the boys and girls who have reached the

required age, as well as the names of their parents and guardians. A copy of it will be handed to the teacher.

§ 11. If there are amongst the children inscribed in this register, any who did not attend school, the teacher will inform the mayor of the ward or village of the fact; and at his command the justice of the peace will confer with the parents or guardians, and exhort them to send their children to school.

§ 12. If after three exhortations given to the parents or guardians, within the space of one month, a child continues to absent himself from school without any legitimate causes, the parents or guardians will, according to the amount of their property, be fined a sum varying from 5 to 100 piasters (100 piasters = 18s English), which money goes to the treasury of the academical council. In case of continued refusal to obey the law, the child will be placed at school by the government authorities.

§ 13. The following are considered legitimate causes excusing children from attendance at school: 1, bodily or mental incapacity, fully established by a certificate from the local authorities; 2, a statement of the necessity for a poor parent, who has only one child, to keep it at home; 3, the working of children in the fields at harvest time; 4, a distance of one to two hours between the child's home and the school; 5, the fact of there being no school, or only a very insufficient one, in the village where the child lives; 6, the fact (fully established and attested by the proper authorities), that the child follows a course of studies at home or at some private school.

§ 14. Every scholar who, in conformity with the existing examination regulations, has obtained a certificate at the expiration of his time at the primary school, may, without any previous examination, enter the primary-superior school (*Ruchdié*).

II. PRIMARY SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

§ 15. If in a ward or village there are two primary schools belonging to one denomination, one ought to be for boys and the other for girls exclusively. In those places where this cannot be conveniently done, the boys' schools must receive the girls till separate schools for boys and girls are founded. Nevertheless, it is forbidden to place the boys and girls together.

§ 16. The teachers of the public girls' schools must be females. Until the required number of female teachers have been obtained, instruction in the girls' schools is to be given by male teachers of mature age and tried morality.

§ 17. All the regulations concerning the method of instruction, the mode of administration, the length of vacation, the obligatory attendance at school, &c., apply to the girls' schools the same as to the boys' schools.

III. PRIMARY-SUPERIOR SCHOOLS. (*Ruchdié*.)

§ 18. All the towns having more than five hundred houses, are to have a Mohammedan *Ruchdié* school if the population is exclusively Mohammedan, and a Christian *Ruchdié* school if the population is entirely christian. But if the population is mixed, there are to be two separate schools, one for Mohammedans, and one for Christians; and in this case, no denomination may have a separate school unless the number of houses exceeds one hundred.

§ 19. The expenses of building primary-superior schools, and the salaries of the professors and teachers, will be paid from the treasury of the academic council of the "vilayet."

§ 20. The primary-superior schools will be uniformly constructed after a plan which will be drawn up by the imperial council of public instruction.

§ 21. Every primary-superior school will, according to the number of pupils, have one or two professors and assistants, elected and nominated according to the regulations of the law with regard to teachers. There will be besides the teachers, in every one of these schools, a watchman and a messenger.

§ 22. The monthly salary of the teachers of the primary-superior schools, is fixed in the following manner: every professor 800 piasters; every assistant 500 piasters; watchman 250, and messenger 150—4,000 piasters are annually appropriated for the various expenses of each of these schools. In this manner the total annual expense of every one of these schools will be more than 40,000 piasters.

§ 23. The course of instruction in the primary-superior schools will cover four years, and will comprise the following subjects : elementary religious instruction, Turkish grammar, orthography and epistolary style, Arabic and Persian grammar according to the new method, arithmetic, book-keeping, linear drawing, elementary geometry, universal history, Turkish history, geography, gymnastics, the language of one of the nationalities which is most used in the respective province.

In the cities which are commercial centres, pupils belonging to the wealthier classes can, if they desire it, learn French during the fourth year. Religious instruction will always be imparted in the language of the community to which the pupil belongs, and by clergymen or priests of the respective denominations.

§ 24. The method of instruction will follow a special programme, which also indicates the division of the classes. No change or modification can be made without the special sanction of the minister of public instruction.

§ 25. The vacation of the primary-superior schools will be twenty-two days, from the 1st of August to the third week of the same month. On the 1st of July the regular course of instruction will end ; the first two weeks of July will be occupied by repetition of all the subjects taught during the year, and the last two weeks by the annual examinations, at the end of which the schools will be closed till the 23d of August. Besides this vacation, the scholars of Mohammedan Ruchdié schools will have a fortnight's leave of absence, from the end of the third week of Ramazan till the end of the third week of the month of Chewal, as well as a week's vacation during the festival of Courban-Bairam. No other vacation will be granted. Non-Mohammedan scholars will be excused from school on the great festival-days of their respective churches. All primary-superior schools will be closed on the anniversary of the Sultan's accession to the throne.

§ 26. The pupils who, at the expiration of their term at the Ruchdié schools, have obtained a certificate, may, without undergoing any examination, enter the preparatory schools. Those who fail to pass the examination, will, if they desire it, be permitted to remain one year longer at the Ruchdié schools.

Primary-superior Schools for Girls.

§ 27. In the large cities there will be a Mohammedan school for the primary-superior instruction for girls, if the population is exclusively Mohammedan, and a Christian school of the same kind if the population is exclusively Christian ; but if the population is mixed, every one of these denominations will have a separate school. In order to enjoy this privilege, the community must have more than five hundred houses. The establishment of this kind of schools will, for the present, only be commenced in Constantinople, in order to be ultimately extended to the chief cities of each vinyalet.

§ 28. The teachers of the primary-superior schools for girls must be females ; in lieu of these, men of mature age and good moral character may be permitted to teach.

§ 29. The course of instruction in the primary-superior schools for girls will cover four years, and comprise the following subjects : elementary religious instruction, Turkish grammar, elements of Arabic and Persian grammar, orthography and composition ; morals, domestic economy, elements of history and geography, arithmetic and book-keeping, drawing and water color painting, needle-work, music. The religious and scientific instruction will be given in the language of the community to which the children belong.

§ 30. The number of teachers will vary from two to four ; there will be besides, a teacher of music and one of needle-work, a superintendent of instruction, and a doorkeeper. The maximum expense of these schools is fixed at 40,000 piasters per annum, which will be paid from the treasury of the academic council.

§ 31. Every pupil who wishes to enter the primary-superior girls' school without any previous examination, must be able to exhibit a certificate from a primary school, in the absence of which she will be obliged to undergo an examination of admission.

§ 32. All regulations regarding the mode of administration, the vacation, &c., of the boys' primary-superior schools, apply also to the girls' schools of this class.

*B. Secondary Instruction.***I. PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.**

§ 33. The preparatory schools are mixed schools, intended to receive Mohammedan and non-Mohammedan children, who have satisfactorily absolved all the classes of the *Ruchdié*.

§ 34. Every city containing more than one thousand houses will have a preparatory school.

§ 35. The expenses of building school-houses, paying the salaries of professors and teachers, will be defrayed by the academic council of the vilayet.

§ 36. There will be in each preparatory school six professors and assistants, each of whom must have a diploma from the superior-normal school of Constantinople, and be appointed by the minister of public instruction. Every preparatory school will have a certain number of watchmen, and a doorkeeper.

§ 37. The monthly pay of the teachers of the preparatory schools is to be 6,000 piasters, and the various annual expenses 8,000 piasters, making a total expense of 20,000 piasters per annum.

§ 38. The course of instruction in the preparatory schools will cover three years, and comprise the following subjects: Turkish literature and composition, French, Turkish grammar, rhetorics, elements of political economy, geography, general history, natural history, algebra, arithmetic, book-keeping, geometry and surveying, physics, chemistry, drawing.

§ 39. The classification and method of instruction will follow a special programme. No change or modification can be made without the express sanction of the minister of public instruction.

§ 40. The vacations and examinations are the same in the preparatory schools as in the primary-superior schools.

§ 41. A scholar who has satisfactorily passed his final examination and received his diploma, may aspire to the functions and prerogatives specified in the examination-regulations. A candidate having failed to pass the examination, may, if he desires it, prolong his stay at the preparatory school for one year.

II. LYCEUMS.

§ 42. There will be a lyceum in every chief town of each vilayet. Every Turkish subject, who has passed his final examination at the preparatory school, will be admitted as boarders (*pensionnaires*) to the lyceum. Pupils from the primary-superior schools, who have a certificate, will likewise be admitted as boarders, but only in the grammar division. In order to facilitate the admission of more intelligent pupils from the preparatory schools, who have not the means of paying for their board, there will be for every hundred students, five whole stipends, and six half and three-fourths stipends.

§ 43. The expenses of building the lycea will be borne by the state, and in cases where the fees of the pupils are insufficient to meet the current expenses, the surplus will be paid by the Imperial treasury, and charged in the annual budget.

§ 44. The scholars in the Imperial lycea are boarders and half-boarders, and day-scholars. The charge for the whole board, half-board, and that of day-scholars, will be fixed by the local academic council, in concert with the local authorities.

§ 45. The number of professors attached to the sections of literature, science, and law, will vary from eight to twelve. Their election and nomination will take place in conformity with the existing regulations. Every lyceum will have besides, according to the local necessity, a warden, a steward, assistant steward, cooks, watchmen, and servants, &c. The administration of the lyceum is placed in the hands of the academic rector of the province.

§ 46. The studies at the lyceum are divided into two divisions: 1, Grammar division; 2, Superior division. The grammar division comprises the same studies as in the preparatory schools. The superior division is likewise subdivided in two sections, viz: the section of literature and the section of science. The whole course covers six years, (two in the grammar and four in the superior division.)

SUPERIOR DIVISION. *Section of Literature:*—Turkish literature; choice works of Arabic and Persian literature; rhetoric; French; political economy; international laws; history.

Section of Science:—Analytical and descriptive geometry; algebra, and the application of algebra to geometry: rectilinear and spherical trigonometry; astronomy; physics; chemistry applied to arts and agriculture.

§ 47. A special programme regulates the method of instruction, &c. No change or modification can take place without the sanction of the ministry of public instruction.

§ 48. The vacations and examinations correspond to those of the Ruchdié and preparatory schools.

§ 49. Pupils of the superior division, who have according to the regulations acquired the right to present themselves at the military conscription examinations, will be exempt from the draft.

§ 50. Pupils of the Imperial lyceum, who after having passed their public examination have received their diploma, may aspire to the functions and prerogatives specified in the examination-regulations. Candidates who have failed to pass the examination may prolong their studies at the lyceum for one year.

C. Superior Instruction.

I. SPECIAL SUPERIOR SCHOOLS.

§ 51. The special schools comprise: (1,) the superior normal school; (2,) the university; (3,) the superior schools of science and arts.*

1. Superior Normal School.

§ 52. There will be established at Constantinople a superior normal school, intended to supply the various kinds of public schools with competent teachers. It is composed of three divisions, having each two sections, (one of literature and one of science.) The first division comprises instruction for teachers of the primary-superior schools; the second for those of the preparatory schools; and the third for those of the lycea.

§ 53. The section of the Ruchdié schools will have two subdivisions, one to educate teachers for Mohammedan Ruchdié schools, and one for the non-Mohammedan ones.

§ 54. The course of instruction in the division for teachers of the primary-superior schools will cover three years, and will comprise the following subjects:

Section of Literature:—Turkish literature and epistolary composition; a sufficient knowledge of Arabic and Persian, according to the new system; languages of the various nationalities; general history. Every nationality enjoys its own language.

Section of Sciences:—Linear drawing; book-keeping; geometry; surveying; algebra.

§ 55. The course of instruction in the preparatory division will cover two years, and comprise the following subjects:

Section of Literature:—Translations from and into Arabic and Persian; Turkish poetry and epistolary style; French; Turkish laws; logic; political economy.

Section of Sciences:—Analytical and descriptive geometry; algebra; physics; chemistry; natural history; drawing.

§ 56. The course of instruction for the lyceum teachers covers three years, and comprises the following subjects:

Section of Literature.—Turkish language, literature, and poetry; a thorough study of Arabic and Persian; rhetoric; translations from Turkish into French, and *vice versa*; law.

Section of Science.—Rectilinear and spherical trigonometry; algebra applied to geometry; perspective; mechanics; astronomy; chemistry applied to arts and agriculture; natural history; geology; topography; drawing.

§ 57. The normal school will have one director and a specified number of professors, assistants, servants, &c.

§ 58. The monthly salary is fixed at the following rate: *Director*—5,000 piasters; *Professors*—from 2,000 to 4,000 piasters.

*The copy of the law from which this translation is made contains no provision respecting this class of schools.

§ 59. Every scholar can, without an examination, be admitted to the corresponding divisions of the superior normal school by presenting a certificate from a Ruchdié-school, a preparatory school, or lyceum. If he does not possess such a certificate he must undergo an examination.

§ 60. The pupils of the primary-superior division receive 80 piasters per month, those of the preparatory division 100 piasters, and those of the lyceum-division. The highest number of paid pupils is to be 100, of whom 40 in the primary division, 30 in the preparatory division, and 30 in the lyceum division.

§ 61. Any pupil of the primary division, who, after having finished his studies, has satisfactorily passed an examination, can become professor at a primary-superior school, or, if he desires it, pass into the preparatory division of the normal school. Any pupil who has finished his studies in the last-mentioned division, after having undergone an examination, may, if he desires it, become professor at a preparatory school, or enter the lyceum division.

§ 62. Pupils who have passed their division examinations in the superior normal school are obliged to accept employment as professors in the corresponding public schools.

§ 63. Professors who have come from the normal school will always have the preference when appointments are made at the government schools.

§ 64. Every professor who, after having studied at the normal school, has not taught for five years at a government school, must refund to the State the expense of his stay at the normal school, and lose his rights of preference to promotion.

§ 65. Every pupil of the normal school may present himself at the examinations before the expiration of his time, and if he passes the examination, can be appointed as professor.

§ 66. The primary normal school will also form one of the branches of the superior normal school, and will be placed under the special superintendence of the general director.

§ 67. The superior normal school will be supplied with a complete library, a physical cabinet, a chemical laboratory, and a museum.

2. *Normal School for Girls.*

§ 68. There will be founded, at Constantinople, a normal school for the education of female teachers for primary and primary-superior girls' schools. It will have two divisions, viz., the primary and the primary-superior, each of which will have two sections, one for Mohammedan and the other for non-Mohammedan schools.

§ 69. The course of studies in the primary division will cover two years, and comprise the following subjects:

Elementary religious instruction, Turkish grammar and literature; methods of instruction; languages of the respective nationalities; morals; arithmetic and book-keeping; Turkish history and geography; practical knowledge; music; drawing and needle-work.

The above subjects are taught in the languages of the respective nationalities.

§ 70. Instruction in the primary-superior division will cover three years, and comprise the following subjects:

Elementary religious instruction; Turkish grammar and epistolary style; Arabic and Persian; morals; domestic economy; history and geography; elements of mathematics; natural sciences; drawing, music, needle-work.

§ 71. There will be appointed a directress of the normal school for girls and a certain number of teachers. Two servants will belong to the establishment. Male teachers will be employed only so long as there is not a sufficient number of female teachers and then only men of mature age and tried morality.

§ 72. The monthly salary is fixed at the following rate: *Directress*—1,500 piasters; *teacher*—750 piasters; *servant*—150 piasters.

§ 73. Every young girl who wishes to enter the normal school without an examination, must present a certificate from a primary and primary-superior school; if not, she has to undergo an examination.

§ 74. Every pupil who, after having finished her studies in the primary division, has passed a satisfactory examination, may, if she desires it, either go out as teacher of a primary school, or enter the primary-superior division of the normal school.

§ 75. A pupil who has finished her studies and passed all examinations satisfactorily, is obliged to accept a place as teacher.

§ 76. Teachers with a certificate from the normal school for girls shall always have the preference in appointments to places.

§ 77. Every pupil from the normal school, who has not served as teacher in one of the public schools for five years, must refund the whole cost of her education; and loses all rights of preference.

§ 78. The number of paid pupils in the normal school for girls will be 50. The pupils of the primary division will each receive 30 piasters per month, and those of the primary-superior division 60 piasters.

II. IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY.

§ 79. There is, established at Constantinople, an Imperial University.

(1.) *Faculties and Subjects of Instruction.*

§ 80. The Imperial University has three faculties, viz.: 1. Literature; 2. Law; 3. Natural science and mathematics.

a.—*Literature.*

§ 81. The following subjects are taught in the faculty of literature: anthropology, psychology, logic, rhetoric, morals, natural law, philosophy of history, Arabic, Persian, Turkish, French, Greek, and Latin, comparative philology, metrics, universal history, archeology, numismatics.

b.—*Law.*

§ 82. The following subjects are taught in the faculty of law: Mohammedan religious and civil laws, Roman law, French Law, commercial and maritime law penal code, laws of administration, national law, and political economy.

c.—*Natural Science and Mathematics.*

§ 83. In the faculty of natural sciences and mathematics the following subjects are taught: astronomy, physics, chemistry, geology, mineralogy, botany, zoology, geometry, trigonometry, geometry applied to algebra, analytical and descriptive geometry, differential and integral calculus, rational and applied mechanics, cosmography, history of physical and natural sciences, and of mathematics.

§ 84. The language employed at the university is Turkish. It is, however, permitted to teach in French till there is a sufficient number of professors capable of teaching in Turkish.

§ 85. The course of studies in every faculty covers three years for the degree of licentiate, and four years for the doctor-degree.

§ 86. A detailed programme for the classes of every faculty is prepared by the professors of each faculty at the commencement of the scholastic year and by the director of the university, submitted to the minister of public instruction for his approval.

§ 87. The lectures are all oral and public, and anybody may attend.

(2.) *The Students.*

§ 88. Every young man who has reached the age of 16 may be inscribed as student at the University, by conforming himself to the existing regulations.

§ 89. He must first name his place of residence at Constantinople, and present a correspondent, to whom the dean of the faculty can address himself if necessary.

§ 90. The candidate must there, before a committee consisting of one professor of each faculty, undergo an examination in Turkish, general history, geography, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, physics, and logic.

§ 91. If after this examination the committee consider the candidate admissible, they furnish him with a certificate, in virtue of which the candidate may inscribe his name in the register of the University by paying one-half lira (100 piasters = 1 Ls.).

§ 92. A candidate who presents a certificate from some recognized government-school, attesting that he has satisfactorily studied the subjects mentioned in § 90, is exempt from this examination.

§ 93. During the first fortnight of every three-months' term, the student must in person renew his inscription and pay one-quarter lira every term.

§ 94. In order to be able to do this, the student must present certificates from all the professors of his faculty testifying that he diligently employed his time.

§ 95. Every student who infringes the regulations of the University, is reprimanded by the professors; after a third reprimand he loses one or two inscriptions, and if no improvement is visible after this, he can be excluded for the space of from one month to one year from the University.

§ 96. Loss of inscription, and exclusion, can only be pronounced by the university-council.

§ 97. All the students live and board in town.

(3.) *The Professors.*

§ 98. The professors and teachers of the university are chosen in conformity with the chapter of this law relating to the professorate.

§ 99. The salaries are fixed at the following rate; professors, 2,500 to 5,000 piasters, and teachers 1,500 to 2,500 piasters per month.

§ 100. Every student must daily put his name on the student's register, and the professors must, once a week, examine these registers, to note who is absent.

§ 101. Every term (of three months each) the professors give certificates of assiduity to those students who have studied diligently and regularly.

(4.) *Examinations.*

§ 102. At the end of every year each student, who has obtained four inscriptions, must undergo an examination on all the subjects taught during the year; he can not claim his fifth inscription if he has not passed his first examination, nor his 9th if he has not passed his second examination, &c.

§ 103. At the end of the third year each student has to pass two examinations, one on the course of the last year and one on the whole three years' course.

§ 104. The student who comes out victoriously from this two-fold trial submits to the dean of his faculty the thesis which he has written, on some subject given by the faculty. If the dean considers it presentable, he authorizes the student to defend his thesis before the examining-jury composed of the professors of the faculty.

§ 105. Every student, who defends his thesis successfully, receives a certificate as "licentiate," with the seal of the University and signed by the dean and secretary of the faculty as well as by the rector of the university. This certificate is according to the terms of the examination-regulations converted into a diploma as "licentiate."

§ 106. Students who aspire to the doctor-degree, must, after having obtained their diploma as licentiate, take out inscriptions for one year longer, pass another examination, and defend another thesis. If they are successful and obtain a certificate, the Imperial counsel of public instruction furnishes them with the doctor-diploma.

§ 107. The examination-fee is, for every examination, two Turkish liras, which go to the treasury of the University.

(5.) *Administration.*

§ 108. The university is placed under the supervision of a "rector," appointed by the Imperial "Irâdê" on the recommendation of the minister of public instruction.

§ 109. The rector must see that all the regulations are properly carried out; he must superintend the conduct of the students, must warn them, and report them to their tutors, and, if necessary, to the minister of public instruction.

§ 110. Every year the rector publicly gives an account of all he has done during the year, of the state of the university and of projected improvements.

§ 111. Every faculty elects a dean from its own number for the term of one year.

§ 112. The dean of each faculty convokes the professors of his faculty whenever he deems it necessary, and holds council with them.

§ 113. The deans of the faculty under the presidency of the rector of the university, form the *university-council* which decides on the programme of studies, the

discipline of the university, current business, improvements to be introduced, or to be recommended to the minister of public instruction.

§ 114. Every faculty has a secretary, chosen by the faculty from among its own members for the term of one year.

§ 115. The secretary must take the minutes of the faculty-meetings, has charge of the correspondence and the preservation of the archives.

§ 116. The salary of the rector is 7,500 piasters per month; the deans receive besides their salaries as professors, a monthly sum of 1,000 piasters.

§ 117. There is one superintendent (*surveillant*) for each class, the university maintains besides a number of servants. The superintendents receive 300 piasters per month, and the servants from 150 to 250 piasters.

(6.) *Vacations.*

§ 118. There are, at the Imperial University, the following vacations: 1. Friday and Sunday in every week; 2. Festival days of the community; 3. The festival days of Ramazan; 4. The month following the examinations; 5. The anniversary of the Sultan's accession to the throne.

(7.) *Library.*

§ 119. A library is formed in the university-building.

§ 120. The librarian is appointed by the Imperial "Irâdê" on the recommendation of the rector and minister of public instruction. The librarian's salary is 2,500 piasters per month.

§ 121. An annual sum of 25,000 piasters is appropriated for the library.

§ 122. The library is permitted to receive donations and legacies from private individuals, and make exchanges with other libraries.

§ 123. The library is open every day for the students and the professors of the university, and, at certain stated times, for the public.

(8.) *Budget.*

§ 124. The university has a special treasury confided to a treasurer, who is appointed by Imperial "Irâdê" on recommendation by the rector and the minister of public instruction.

§ 125. The sources of income are the following: 1. The inscription fees and certificates; 2. Donations and legacies from private individuals; 3. An annual subsidy from the imperial government, intended to cover any annual deficit.

§ 126. The expenses of the University are: 1. The salaries of the rector, the professors and employees; 2. The heating of the establishment; 3. Repairs and the annual subsidy to the library.

§ 127. The annual account of income and expenditure must be handed in to the imperial council of public instruction.

§ 128. There will be established in connection with the university a museum of natural history, a collection of coins, and a chemical laboratory. These institutions will have their separate staff of officials.

II. PRIVATE OR NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS. (*écoles libres.*)

§ 129. The "*écoles libres*" are those schools which have been founded by communes, associations, or by private individuals, both Turkish subjects and foreigners. Instruction in these schools is gratuitous, the expenses being borne by their founders. The foundation of "*écoles libres*" in the provinces must be sanctioned by the governor-general and the academical council, and at Constantinople by the ministry of public instruction. This sanction will only be given on the following conditions: 1. The teachers and professors must have a certificate of capacity or diploma from the ministry of public instruction, or from the local academical council; 2. The programmes of instruction and the text-books used in these schools must be approved by the ministry of public instruction, or the local academical council. Every "*école libre*" which has been opened without fulfilling these conditions will be closed by the authorities.

§ 130. It is expressly forbidden for the teachers to maltreat stubborn or idle scholars, or use any abusive language. The different degrees of punishments will be indicated in a special code of instructions. Any violation of these rules will be punished according to law. The regulation mentioned in this section has reference to the public schools as well as to the "*écoles libres.*"

II. ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

I —IMPERIAL COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

§ 131. There will be established at Constantinople a great or imperial council of public instruction, which will be presided over by the minister, and will be divided into a scientific and administrative section.

§ 132. The general assembly of the imperial council will consist of its two united sections, two state-counselors, two counselors of the supreme court of justice, two "ulémas," two general officers of the army, and the spiritual head of the different denominations. It assembles twice a year, under the presidency of the Minister, and will continue in session as long as is required by its business.

Scientific Section.

§ 133. The scientific section will assemble twice a week. It will have a president, permanent, honorary and correspondent members. The permanent members must be Turkish subjects; their number will be eight. The number of honorary members is not restricted. Two secretaries will be attached to this section, and the corresponding secretary must know the French language. Deans of faculties, and directors of superior schools, are, by right, members of the scientific section, and must be present whenever specially wanted.

§ 134. The special object of the scientific section is, to provide by original composition on translation, and by offer of rewards, diplomas, and in other ways, all text-books and other works required for the study of the classical, and the Turkish languages, and of science and art. The State grants an annual subsidy of one million of piasters for the pay of authors and translators employed in this service.

§ 135. The members of the scientific section are responsible officials, and must at the end of the year, render an account of the work done.

§ 136. The permanent members of the scientific section are chosen from Turkish subjects who are acquainted with one of the following languages: Arabic, Greek, Latin, or one of the principal languages of Europe; who are thoroughly versed with one science, as well as with the Turkish language and literature, and are able to compose and translate in this language.

§ 137. Honorary members are privileged to correspond with the scientific section, to bring to its knowledge all researches, experiences, discoveries, and works in literature and science, and to be present at the extraordinary sessions which are held once every three months.

Administrative Section.

§ 138. The administrative section is composed of one president, two vice-presidents, and four general-inspectors, half Mohammedan and half non-Mohammedan, as well as of six extra members, of whom one-third are non-Mohammedans. A general secretary is attached to the section, who will attend every day, and is charged with the superintendence of all the schools of the capital and the provinces, the academic councils, libraries, museums, and imperial printing establishments. This section is charged with the nomination of professors, the examination of all differences among professors, and the supervision of everything relating to public instruction, and the preparation of the annual budget.

§ 139. The two sections will unite as often as is deemed necessary under the president of that section, to whose domain the affair belongs, which has caused the united assembly.

§ 140. The salaries of members of these two sections will be as follows: Each president, 7,500 piasters; each member, 4000 piasters per month; general secretaries, 3,000 piasters. All of whom are appointed by the minister of public instruction.

§ 141. There will be attached to both sections a bureau of correspondence and a bureau of accounts.

§ 142. The treasury of public instruction, in the city of Constantinople, will be managed by a special functionary.

II. ACADEMIC COUNCILS IN THE PROVINCES.

§ 143. There will be in the chief city of every province (*vilayet*) an academic council, forming a branch of the great council of public instruction at Constantinople. Its president will have the title "rector of academy," and it will be composed as follows: two vice-rectors (one Mohammedan and one non-Mohammedan); four general inspectors, two Mohammedans and two non-Mohammedans; four to ten members (half Mohammedan and half non-Mohammedan); a secretary, an accountant, and a treasurer. Every chief town (*Sandjak*) of a department will, according to the wants of the locality, have one or two university functionaries with the title "inspectors," one Mohammedan, the other non-Mohammedan. These inspectors are placed under the supervision of the governor-general of the province. All the functionaries mentioned in this section must be Turkish subjects.

§ 144. Rectors, vice-rectors, general inspectors, and the inspectors of the academic councils will be appointed by the Sultan on recommendation by the minister of public instruction. All other functionaries must be acquainted with the locality, and will be appointed on recommendation of the governor-general of the province, by the minister of public instruction, and can not be displaced without his sanction.

§ 145. The rectors, vice rectors, inspector-general, inspectors, secretaries, accountants, and treasurers, will receive per month: the rectors 3,000 to 5,000 piasters; the vice-rector, 2,000 piasters; the inspector-general, 2,000; the inspector, 2,000; the secretaries, accountants, and treasurers, from 500 to 1,000 piasters. Inspector-generals have also their traveling expenses paid.

§ 146. The duties of the academic councils are as follows: To carry out the instructions transmitted to them by the departments of public instruction; to administer strictly, in their respective provinces, the provisions of this law; to manage the appropriations of the State as well as the additional local tax levied for public instruction, to superintend schools, libraries, printing establishments, and similar institutions in their provinces, to inspect the schools from time to time, to introduce improvements, to prepare an annual report on the state of public instruction in their province, and make suggestion of desirable improvements, to deliver a copy of this report to the general assembly of the province, which has to regulate its budget in accordance with it, to work in perfecting public instruction in every possible way, to select and appoint professors and teachers, to hold public examinations and give diplomas and certificates.

§ 147. The rectors and vice-rectors will give all their attention to the management of current business, to the prompt carrying out of improvements resolved upon, as well as to the strict execution of the present law, and the orders which they may receive from the department of public instruction. They will inspect the schools and libraries, especially the preparatory schools, the lyceums and special schools of the chief towns of their province, to regulate the expenses and see that the funds are not misapplied, or fail in their object. They are responsible to the "rector of the academy."

§ 148. The inspector-generals, whenever it is deemed necessary, must, alternately, inspect schools and libraries of the province, and superintend the actions of the department-inspectors. They will, in their circuits, see to the faithful administration of schools in the limits traced by the law; and are authorized, without special direction from higher authorities, to issue orders within the sphere of their functions, and recommend general measures to the academic council for approbation. On their return they must submit to the council a circumstantial report of all their personal observations.

§ 149. Every inspector will, on his appointment, visit his department once in every three months, and once every half-year as soon as the schools are organized. They are authorized to introduce, without any previous authorization, indispensable improvements in the sphere of their functions, and to submit general measures to the academic council of their province, to which council they must hand in a report every month.

§ 150. Honorary members will, as often as their time permits, examine matters submitted to the academic council of their province; and must perform all special missions, with which they may be intrusted by the council.

§ 151. Professors of schools will communicate with the inspector-generals or

inspectors of the province in which they reside. If these functionaries are absent, the teachers of primary schools will address themselves to the professors of the nearest primary-superior school or preparatory school; those of the primary-superior schools to the professors of preparatory schools, or directly to the inspectors, and they, according to the nature of the matter, will refer it to the prefect of the department (*liva*) or the academic councils.

§ 152. The academic councils will refer, in case of doubt, everything to the governor-general of their province, and, if necessary, directly to the imperial ministry of public instruction.

III. EXAMINATIONS, DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES.

§ 153. There shall be held three kinds of examinations in the public schools. The first comprises the class examinations, held at the end of every year, to pass pupils from one class to another; the second comprises school examinations, which take place at the end of the scholastic year; and the third, public examinations for diplomas.

§ 154. Examinations of the first kind are held in primary schools by the teacher, in the presence of a justice of the peace, or of the town council; in the primary superior schools, by a professor from the preparatory school; and in the preparatory schools, by a professor from the lyceum. If there is no preparatory school nor lyceum in the place, the professors of the school hold the examinations. In preparatory schools a general inspector will assist, if possible, at these examinations. As regards the final examinations in lycées, they are to take place before the academic councils; at Constantinople, before some persons chosen from the imperial council of public instruction, and some professor of the normal school, or the university. Pupils who have passed these examinations are furnished with certificates.

§ 155. Examinations of the second kind are conducted in a manner similar to that indicated in the preceding section; and pupils who have passed them, receive certificates, exempting them from any examination otherwise necessary for admission to the high school.

§ 156. Every pupil of a superior school passes his examination before the professors of his division or his faculty, and by handing in his certificate, previously received at school, he obtains a diploma from the Imperial Council of Public Instruction.

§ 157. Examinations of the third kind are sub-divided as follows: first, for the bachelor's degree of literature, science, and law; second, for that of licentiate of literature, science, and law; and third, for the doctor's degree of literature, science, law, and medicine.

§ 158. A pupil from the preparatory school can, on the presentation of his certificate, pass an examination for the degree of bachelor of literature, science, and law, before an examining jury, composed, at Constantinople, of the scientific section of the imperial council of public instruction, the professors of the University, and the directors of the superior schools; and in the provinces, of the rector and members of the academic council. The examination is oral, and, if passed, the pupil receives a diploma of bachelor, delivered in the name of the Sultan, having at the head the Imperial Chiffre, and signed by the minister of public instruction. This diploma will mention the name of the academic council, before which the candidate passed his examination. The examination fee is two liras. These examinations for the bachelor's degree continue in session during three months every year, and are open for candidates during that period.

§ 159. A pupil who fails on his first examination for the degree of bachelor, may present himself again towards the end of this examination period. If he fails the second time, he cannot present himself for a third examination until the following year; when, if he fails, he may still present himself a fourth time during the examination period of the same year, when, if he fails, he is forever deprived of the opportunity of obtaining the diploma of bachelor.

§ 160. The programme for the bachelor's examination is drawn up and published by the scientific section of the imperial council of public instruction, in conformity with a course of studies pursued at the preparatory schools.

§ 161. Every bachelor is admitted without examination, at the superior and normal schools.

§ 162. No individual can open a private school, even a primary one, without possessing a diploma of a bachelor.

§ 163. Every bachelor may obtain a place in government offices, according to the specialty for which he has passed his examination.

§ 164. Every pupil who has finished his studies in the superior division of the lyceum may be examined for the degree of licentiate, by exhibiting either a certificate from the lyceum or a diploma of bachelor. The examination is both oral and written. A candidate who has been admitted to this degree, and every student in the University, who has finished his third year, and every pupil of the normal school, who has finished his second year, will receive, on presenting his certificate from the faculty or normal school, a diploma of licentiate from the minister of public instruction. The examination fee is three liras.

§ 165. The duration of the examination period, and the mode of examination, are the same as those for the bachelor's degree. The programme is drawn up and published by the scientific section.

§ 166. Every licentiate may be nominated to important places in the administrative branches of the government, according to the specialty for which he has passed his examination.

§ 167. Every licentiate who has finished his second year at the lyceum division of the normal school, may be appointed as professor in a preparatory school, or as teacher in a lyceum.

§ 168. A pupil, after completing the course in the lyceum division of the normal school, or in a special school, has passed in his school an examination for the degree of doctor, receives a certificate entitling him to a doctor's diploma, given by the Imperial Council of Public Instruction. The examination fee is five liras.

§ 169. The duration of the examination and the mode, are similar to those previously given. The programme is drawn up and published by the direction of the superior schools, and approved by the minister of public instruction.

§ 170. Every doctor may, according to his specialty, be appointed to superior places in the administration. He may likewise become a member of the scientific section, and successively become professor and director of a lyceum, and then of a superior school, and finally of the normal school.

§ 171. At the end of each scholastic year the scientific section at Constantinople, and the academic councils in the provinces, divide themselves into three committees, forming three examining juries, namely, for the bachelor's degree, the licentiate's, and the doctor's degree.

§ 172. Ballots are cast into three different boxes, for white, red, or black balls; the white signifying good; the red, passable; and the black, bad.

§ 173. A pupil who has obtained three white balls is considered as having passed his examination well. His name, with honorable mention, is inscribed in the archives of the university and the academic councils. One white ball and two red will still entitle a pupil to pass his examination. Pupils who obtain three red balls, or two white and one black, at the examination for bachelor, are still allowed to pass. But if they obtain these same balls at the examination for licentiate or doctor, they will be rejected. The names of candidates who receive diplomas are inscribed in large characters, on tablets hung at the great entrance portal of the scientific section, or that of the academic council.

§ 174. Any Turkish subject, who has not gone regularly through the public schools, if he desires it, may present himself for any examination, on condition of submitting to the regulations prescribed by this law. Every bachelor may present himself at the examination for licentiate; and every licentiate at that for the doctor's degree.

§ 175. Any foreigner may receive a public examination by paying the examination fee; and may also obtain the degrees. But he cannot be eligible to the prerogatives attaching to the diplomas.

§ 176. The examination fees are paid by the candidate before his examination; and if rejected, he can reclaim only one-half the fee.

§ 177. Twenty days before the annual vacation, a general competition between picked scholars from the preparatory schools and lyceums, is held. Each class writes compositions on various subjects, which are submitted to an examining committee who fix the amount of the prizes. The solemn distribution of prizes takes place at Constantinople, the Minister of Public Instruction presiding, before an assembly composed of the Imperial Council of Public Instruction

the professors of the university, and the directors of special schools. It is also attended by the ministers of the diplomatic corps, and other dignitaries of the Empire. In the provinces it takes place under the presidency of the Governor General, in the presence of the local authorities and the academic councils, the parents of the pupils, and other prominent persons. Pupils who obtain prizes at these competitive examinations, are called out separately and receive their prizes from the hands of the president. There are four prizes, of which two silver medals are given to those pupils who have most distinguished themselves in the three classes of the superior division of the lyceums; and two bronze medals to the two best pupils in the third year of the preparatory schools.

IV. TEACHERS AND PROFESSORS.

§ 178. The teachers and professors of the public schools of the empire must be Turkish subjects. No one can be teacher in a public school, unless he is provided with a certificate from the primary section of the normal school.

§ 179. Teachers of public schools will be admitted to the examinations exempting from military service.

§ 180. Every teacher who has violated the regulations of the school will be censured or reprimanded; if the offense is repeated, he will be discharged.

§ 181. The professors of the primary-superior schools will be selected from the successful pupils of the primary-superior division of the normal school. They must be at least twenty-five years old, be of good moral standing, and not afflicted with any disease.

§ 182. If there is a professor's vacancy in a primary-superior school, the oldest teacher will receive the place. The same course will be pursued in the preparatory schools and lyceums.

§ 183. Every professor of *Ruchdié* who is able to pass his examination in the preparatory division of the normal school, and every licentiate, may become teachers in a preparatory school. The same course is pursued with regard to the lyceums.

§ 184. The oldest professors of preparatory schools, and the oldest teachers of the superior division of the lyceums, will, in case of vacancies, be nominated as professors in lyceums; not, however, without having a doctor's diploma.

§ 185. The oldest professors of lyceums and superior schools, can in case of vacancies, be appointed inspectors-general, members and vice-rectors of the academic councils, directors of lyceums and special schools.

§ 186. Every professor of a public school, lyceum, or special school, who neglects his duties, will be fined an amount in proportion to the time of his absence, and if this period exceeds ten days during a month, he will be discharged, after having been duly notified.

§ 187. Every professor guilty of a crime, loses his diploma, and his name is struck from the list.

§ 188. Professors who are members of examining juries, will receive, as long as they are in session, a suitable remuneration.

§ 189. The professors of primary-superior schools and preparatory schools, will, if they desire it, be permitted to give instruction on their own account outside of their regular school-duties.

§ 190. Professors who wish to retire can do so by conforming to the general regulations on this subject.

§ 191. The amount of pensions to be accorded to retired professors, their widows and orphans, is determined according to the pension regulations.

V. THE BUDGET.

§ 192. The revenues of the general administration of public instruction consist of an annual subsidy from the state, the additional contributions from the people, the assessments of the *l'evcaf*, donations and legacies made by private individuals, the board-money of the pupils of the lyceums and special schools, the examination fees, and the fines.

§ 193. The budget of the imperial council of public instruction of the primary-superior schools and the preparatory schools of Constantinople, is drawn up every year by the general assembly of this council, and approved by the council of state. As soon as it has received the Imperial sanction, the additional

sum will be levied on the population through the municipal authorities, and placed in the central treasury of public instruction, together with the subsidy from the state.

§ 194. The budget of the academic councils, the primary-superior and the preparatory schools in the provinces, will be drawn up by these councils, and after having been approved by the general council of the *vilayet*, will be sent to the ministry of public instruction in order to be submitted to the council of state. The additional sum levied on the people in the provinces is put in the central treasury of public instruction.

§ 195. The permanent assessments of the *racoufs* and special donations, will be placed to the credit of the additional contribution from the people.

§ 196. The annual allocations of the primary-superior schools, both Moham-medan and Christian, will be determined separately according to the amount contributed by the inhabitants and the amount of subsidy paid by the state. The same applies to the assessments and expenditure of the preparatory schools and the academic councils.

§ 197. Every community will pay its quota in the chapter of receipts of the budget, and the money will be paid against a receipt in the respective localities, in conformity with the decisions of the academic council; and this will be done by special agents. The assessments of schools located in the *livas* (departments), will be advanced regularly every month by drafts on the public treasuries or other establishments.

§ 198. The maintenance of the primary schools falls to the charge of the communities; the annual assessment to be paid, according to the locality, either in money or in kind, is not to exceed 900 piasters, and may not be less than 600. The repartition of this sum will be made monthly or at certain times determined by the local authorities on the productions of the *racouf* of the school, or if there is none, on the wealthiest inhabitants of the village. In case the sum raised should not suffice, the deficit will be reassessed on the whole village.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWITZERLAND.

INTRODUCTION.

THE Swiss Confederation was founded on the first of January, 1818, by the cantons Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden. In 1868 it numbered 8 cantons, and in 1818 it was composed of 13 cantons. This old Confederation of 13 cantons was increased by the adherence of several subject territories, and existed till 1798, when it was replaced by the Helvetic Republic, which lasted four years. In 1806, Napoleon I. organized a new Confederation, composed of 19 cantons, by the addition of St. Gall, the Grisons, Argovia, Thurgovia, Tessin and Vaud. This Confederation was modified in 1815, and the number of cantons was increased to 22 by the re-admission of Valais, Neuchâtel and Geneva, which after the revolution in 1848, formed the present Confederation.

CANTON.	Area. Eng. sq. mls.	POPULATION.				No. of Fed. rep- resenta- tives.
		1880.	Pr. sq. mile.	Catholic.	Protestant.	
Zurich, - - -	658.8	267,641	366.8	11,497	254,908	13
Berne, - - -	2,561.6	480,516	178.8	59,572	466,862	23
Lucerne, - - -	587.4	130,965	74.1	139,248	2,697	7
Uri, - - -	420.5	14,761	84.4	14,722	39	1
Schwyz, - - -	838.8	46,198	130.5	44,649	539	2
Unterwald, Upper, -	262.6	13,399	95.6	13,304	95	2
" Lower, -		11,561		11,506	55	
Glarus, - - -	279.8	83,458	107.9	5,866	27,563	2
Zug, - - -	85.4	19,667	304.4	19,085	622	1
Freybourg, - - -	568.9	105,970	177.1	90,362	15,578	5
Soleure, - - -	254.6	69,627	273.6	59,799	9,626	3
Basle, Town, - - -	164.6	41,261	420.2	9,996	30,826	5
" County, - - -		51,773		9,824	41,721	
Schaffhausen, - - -	119.7	35,646	284.9	2,080	33,489	2
Appenzell, Exterior, -	162.8	48,604	859.3	2,243	46,359	3
" Interior, -		12,020		11,896	123	
St. Gall, - - -	747.7	181,091	228.2	111,087	69,802	9
Grisons, - - -	2,968.0	91,177	80.2	29,008	52,166	5
Argovia, - - -	502.4	199,600	397.7	68,588	104,385	10
Thurgovia, - - -	268.3	90,847	368.6	22,152	67,861	5
Tessin, (Ticino,) - -	1,024.7	181,896	118.8	181,241	115	6
Vaud, - - -	1,181.9	218,806	188.8	12,931	199,465	11
Valais, - - -	1,661.6	90,880	50.5	90,169	697	5
Neuchâtel, - - -	236.2	87,847	252.5	9,359	77,476	4
Geneva, - - -	81.3	83,840	702.5	72,366	70,266	4
Total, - - -	15,233.0	2,534,242	157.2	1,040,469	1,483,296	128

Public instruction in Switzerland is, with the exception of the Federal Polytechnic School and the military courses, regulated by cantonal legislation, of which the following are the general results :

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ARGOVIA.

AREA—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT.

THE canton of Argovia or Aargau (the country of the Aar) is bounded by the cantons of Zurich, Zug, Luzern, Bern, Soleure, Basle, and the plain which separates it from Baden, and had, in 1864, on an area of 502 square miles, 199,600 inhabitants, of whom 104,385 were Protestants, and 88,583 Catholics.

The present canton Argovia has only been formed in recent time. It consisted formerly of three separate parts, two of them being under the jurisdiction of one of the neighboring cantons, and one belonging at least nominally to Austria. Two of them were united under the name "Aarau and Baden" in 1798, and in 1803, through the influence of Napoleon I., the third part was united to these, and the whole called "The Canton of Argovia." In 1830, an insurrection took place by the people against the oligarchical Government, and a new and liberal constitution was introduced. In 1841, another insurrection was instigated by the Jesuits, which, however, was soon overcome. As a consequence, all the convents were abolished; but in 1843, four nunneries were sanctioned again. The constitution has been revised twice, in 1852 and 1862. In the last mentioned year the re-actionary party gained a victory, by preventing the passing of a law putting Jews and Christians on a footing of equality. Since then considerable excitement has existed in the canton, but, up to the present time, no change has been made.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The school laws in force in 1868 were framed in 1865. There is a cantonal Board of Education (*Erziehungsreth*), consisting of 6 members, the president of which has the title, Director of Education (*Erziehungsdirector*). The duties of the Board are: to consider thoroughly all laws, rules, and regulations relating to school matters, present text-books, draw up programmes of instruction, establish new schools, and appoint and pay teachers and school inspectors. The District School Board consists of 7 members; its functions are, to manage the school funds and build and care for school-houses. From among its number the cantonal Board of Education selects inspectors, who must visit every school in their district at least twice every half-year. The immediate supervision of each school is in the hands of a local school board (*Schulpflege*) of 5 to 9 members—half of them chosen by the District School Board, the other half by the municipal authorities.

1. *Primary Schools.*

In every village of 40 children, there must be a primary school. If the number of children during 4 years exceeds 80, a second school must be established.

The course of instruction comprises religion, reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, surveying, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. If all the classes are united under one teacher, the school is called a united school (*gesammtschole*); if there are several classes, with a teacher for each, a graduated school (*successionschule*); if, on account of the large number of scholars, the school is divided into two divisions, it is called a parallel school (*parallelschule*). The course of instruction lasts eight years, and during the last two years special regard is paid to the demands of practical life. Every child is obliged to attend school from the seventh to the fifteenth years of its age. The number of school-hours during the first six years is, during summer, 15, and during the last two years, 12; in winter, 18 during the first two years, and 24 during the following years. Girls attending an *industrial school* are to have at least 15 hours in summer, and 27 in winter.

Programme of instruction in the Primary Schools.

SCHOOL-YEARS.	I	II.	III	IV.	V	VI.	VII	VIII.
Religion,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Language,	10	11	7	11	4	7	3	7
Arithmetic,	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4
Writing,	—	—	2	3	1	2	—	2
Realia,	—	—	—	—	3	6	3	6
Drawing,	—	—	1	2	1	1	—	1
Singing,	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2
Gymnastics,	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	15	18	15	24	15	24	12	24

There is to be an *industrial-school* in every village, which every girl is obliged to attend with the commencement of the third year of her schooling. If there are more than 30 scholars there are to be two divisions; if more than 60, three, &c. Number of hours per week, in summer 3, and in winter 6.

Repetition-schools, or *Supplementary-schools*, have only 2 or 3 classes, and a one year's course, and are especially intended for farmers and mechanics. To every one of these schools the government contributes the sum of 1,000 francs. The course of instruction includes: Religion, reading, grammar, French, arithmetic, bookkeeping, surveying, drawing, calligraphy, singing, geography, history, natural sciences;—for girls, besides, needle-work and domestic economy. Conditions of admission are: the age of 12–13; a thorough knowledge of all the subjects taught at the primary schools. The teachers, who have a salary of 1,000 francs, are obliged to keep 24–30 hours a week.

Every proprietor of a factory, who employs children between the ages of 7–15, is obliged by law, to establish a special school for them, in which instruction is given gratis for at least 12 hours per week. The organiza-

tion of these schools, and the course of instruction, are the same as that of the primary schools. All the *infant schools* are also under the supervision of the educational authorities, and receive some pecuniary aid from the government. In all these schools a very strict discipline is maintained, and every unexcused absence is punished by a fine or incarceration.

District-schools are intended to extend the knowledge gained at the primary schools, and prepare scholars for the higher cantonal institutions. The course of instruction lasts 4 years, and embraces the following subjects: religion, German, French, geometry, arithmetic, general history, history of Switzerland, geography (general and Swiss), natural sciences, bookkeeping, writing, drawing, singing, gymnastics, military drill. Optional subjects are: Latin, Greek, Italian, English. Pupils are admitted who have finished the 11th year of their age. At the foundation of a district-school, the government grants a sum of not more than 5,000 francs; and an annual sum of 2,500–4,500 francs. The school-fee is not to exceed 20 francs.

The teachers at the primary-schools are appointed either definitely or provisionally, the former having a salary of 800 francs; the latter, of 900 francs. The salary of teachers at the Repetition-schools varies from 1,200–1,500 francs. The government pays pensions to superannuated or disabled teachers. The teachers at district-schools are either headmasters or assistant teachers; the former receive a salary of at least 2,000 francs, the latter are paid by the hour.

There is a Teachers' Seminary at Aarau, the special course of instruction in which embraces: religion, pedagogics, practical course of school-keeping, German, French, mathematics, history, geography, natural sciences, elements of agriculture, singing, violin, organ, drawing, calligraphy, gymnastics. All these subjects, with the exception of violin and organ, are obligatory. Connected with the seminary there is a model-school. The students of the seminary work in the garden and fields at stated hours. The course lasts 4 years. Condition of admission: must be of 15 years of age. At the head of the institution there is a director, chosen on the recommendation of the "Board of Education." He has generally to pass an examination, and receives a salary of 2,500 to 3,000 francs. The headmaster, 2,000–2,500. This seminary is very well conducted, has a library and museum, and large grounds for the pursuit of agriculture and horticulture. Poor students receive a stipend, which is not to exceed 180 francs per annum.

There is also a course of instruction in every district for females who have completed their 16th year and the primary course. who are candidates for teachers in the industrial schools, in which domestic economy and needle-work, besides reading, writing and arithmetic are taught.

All the teachers and inspectors of the Canton meet once a year at the *Cantonal Conference*, previously to which a *District Conference* is held in every district, to prepare the questions to be discussed at the General Conference.

2. Secondary Schools.

The *Cantonal School* has two divisions, viz: the Gymnasium and the Industrial School. The Gymnasium consists of 4 classes, with a one year's course in each, and a Progymnasium with a two years' course. The course of instruction embraces: religion, German language and literature, Latin and Greek, French language and literature, geography and history, mathematics, natural sciences, drawing, singing, instrumental music, gymnastics and military drill, besides Hebrew for those who intend to study theology.

The course of instruction at the Industrial School, embraces:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.
German,	4	4	3
French,	5	4	3
Geography,	3	—	—
History,	2	2	2
Mathematics,	5	7	6-8
Natural History,	2	2	2
Chemistry,	—	3	7
Experimental Physics,	—	3	3
Technical Drawing,	3	3	3

There are three classes, with a one year's course in each. Instruction commences where it left off in the District School, and candidates for admission have to pass a rigorous examination. The age of 15 is required to enter either the Gymnasium or the Industrial School.

The school-fee is 20 francs for every class, and 40 francs for the use of the laboratory. The teachers are either headmasters or assistant teachers, the former are obliged to keep 18-24 hours a week. The money salary, (in addition to a dwelling,) varies from 2,600-3,200 francs. The Rector is chosen from among the headmasters, for a period of six years, and receives an additional salary of 300 francs. There is an Inspector appointed by the "Board of Education," for the Gymnasium, and one for the Industrial School.

3. Statistics.

There were, in 1866, 518 primary schools, 144 of which were United Schools, 159 Lower, 37 Middle, 159 Higher, and 19 Repetition schools, and 29,034 scholars, and 518 teachers in the primary schools, viz: 487 males, 31 females. Number of Industrial schools, 293; number of teachers, 285; pupils, (all females,) 11,346. Number of District schools, 23, with 1,447 scholars, (1,395 boys and 52 girls.) Latin was taught in 19, Greek in 16, English in 6, Italian in 4, Instrumental Music in 6. The number of scholars in the Progymnasium, was 26; at the Gymnasium, 61; at the Industrial school, 50; (total, 137.) At the Teachers' Seminary, there were in 1866, 83 students. The total sum expended for educational purposes, was 471,752 francs.

Among the *special institutions*, there is the Cantonal Asylum for boys, at Ohlsberg, organized in 1860; the House of Correction, at Lingburg; 3 institutions for the deaf and dumb; 2 educational establishments for poor children, at Kestlin and Friedberg; 2 Factory schools near Baden, and 18 Infant schools.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN APPENZELL.

AREA—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT.

THE Canton of Appenzell, having a population in 1864 of only 60,624 inhabitants, in an area of 158 square miles, surrounded by the Canton of St. Gall, is divided for internal administration into the Outer and Inner Rhodes, the former having a population of 48,604 inhabitants, who are nearly all protestants, and the latter having a population of 12,020, who are nearly all catholics. The government is administered by a Grand Council, elected by universal suffrage, all males over sixteen years of age being entitled to appear in the Grand Assembly held annually in the chief town for the purpose, and for general legislation.

Until quite recently the central authority exercised but little interference with the local management of schools, and although there was a general law on the subject, its administration was left with teachers and parents, who paid little or no attention to the regulations of Cantonal School-boards.

I. OUTER APPENZELL.

1. *Primary Schools.*

In 1862, a new system was organized, under the general superintendence of a Commission, (*Landesschul-commission*), having charge of all the schools in the Canton. This Commission, composed of seven members, appointed by the Grand Council, sanctions the text-books and course of studies recommended by the teachers, and designates competent persons to inspect the schools and report on their condition. On the recommendation of the Commission the Grand Council makes appropriation to poor neighborhoods in aid of the building of school-houses.

To secure punctual and regular school attendance, teachers are obliged to record every case of absence. If a child during one half-year has been absent 10 half-days, or if the school is kept twice a day, 20 half-days, without a satisfactory excuse, the parents or guardians are reprimanded, which is followed by a fine or other punishment if the absence continues. There are in the primary schools 3 weeks vacation.

Young men who wish to prepare to teach, receive aid to the extent of 250 francs per annum; Real-school-teachers, 300–500 francs. Every one thus aided by a stipend, must after having finished his studies, pass a satisfactory examination or pay back the sum. Every primary teacher who has passed such an examination, on being elected teacher at some school,

receives an outfit of 200 francs. Every teacher who has had such stipend and outfit, must teach 10 years in the Canton.

The examination of primary teachers is both a preliminary examination and professional. In the preliminary examination, he must prove his proficiency in penmanship and drawing, and his ability in composing on some given subject, and must give a practical demonstration of his method of keeping school. The professional examination relates to the following subjects: Reading, German grammar, bible history, arithmetic, singing, mathematical and general geography, geography of Switzerland, general history, history of Switzerland, natural history, natural philosophy, geometry, and calligraphy.

2. *Secondary Schools.*

The *Cantonal School* at *Trogen*, is maintained by the government, and is partly intended to prepare pupils for practical life, partly to prepare them for some higher institution of learning. The course of instruction embraces: Religion, German, French, English, Latin, Greek, arithmetic, mathematics, geography, history, natural history, natural philosophy, chemistry, technology, book-keeping, calligraphy, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. In the higher classes the scholars shall, if possible, be theoretically and practically instructed in weaving. Instruction is imparted by 4 teachers and several assistant teachers. The course lasts 4 years. The completed 12th year is required for admission. The school-fee for natives of the Canton, is 50 francs; for foreigners, 100 francs. There is a boarding-house in connection with the school.

3. *Statistics.*

There are in Appenzell-Ausserrhoden, 86 primary schools, 8 Real schools, and 1 Cantonal school. The primary schools are subdivided into *public village schools*, which are attended by the older children in the forenoon, and by the younger ones in the afternoon; 4 middle schools, forming a connecting link between the primary schools, and the Real schools, orphan schools, and 3 private primary schools. The number of scholars in the primary schools is 8,400, of whom 5,500 were every-day scholars. The number of teachers at the primary schools is 86, most of whom have been educated at the *Teachers' Seminary* at *Gais*. Of the 8 Real schools 2 are girls' schools, with 297 pupils; the number of teachers is 16 male and 2 female teachers. The salary ranges from 7-1,000 francs. At the Cantonal School at *Trogen*, there are five teachers and 2 assistant teachers, with salaries ranging from 2,000-2,800 francs. The number of scholars was 56, of whom 7 were in the classical division. During the last few years, supplementary schools for adults, and industrial schools for girls, have been established.

II. INNER APPENZELL.

Appenzell successively formed part of ancient Helvetia, the Roman Empire, Alemannia and the kingdom of the Franks. In the year 1513 it joined the 12 cantons, and thus became a part of Switzerland. In the year 1524, the doctrines of the Reformation were introduced. This, however, in course of time became the cause of a quarrel between the Catholic and Reformed portion of the canton, which was settled in 1597, by a jury composed of deputies from all the other cantons, by establishing two separate cantons, viz., Inner Appenzell (Catholic) and Outer Appenzell (Reformed,) each in future to have its own government. The constitution in both these cantons is purely democratic. In Inner Appenzell, the present constitution dates from 1829, and in Outer Appenzell from 1834. The highest authority in both is the "Laudgemeinde," (assembly of all the adult males.) Under it are, in Inner Appenzell, a Great Council of 124 members, and a Little Council of 16 members; whilst Outer Appenzell has only a Great Council.

The school-law at present in force in the Half-Canton of Appenzell-Innerrhoden, was revised in 1859. Its most important regulations are the following: All schools are under the supervision of a School Committee, which selects the text-books to be used, (with the exception of those used in the religious instruction,) examines candidates for teaching, issues certificates of qualification, and makes an annual report to the Cantonal Government. Its permission is required for establishing a private school. In every school district there is a local School Committee, of which the pastor of the village is chairman. He is obliged to visit the school every week and impart religious instruction, for, says the law: "the school is inseparable from the Church." The aim of the school is to be, not merely instruction, but education, in the full sense of the word. The course of instruction embraces: Catholic Religion, reading, calligraphy, orthography, composition, arithmetic. In order to obtain a uniform method of instruction, there is a *Repetition course* for teachers.

Children are obliged to attend school from the age of 6-12, and cannot leave school before passing a satisfactory examination in the elementary branches. In the chief town, *Appenzell*, there are separate schools for boys and girls, and also a Latin school. Most of the elementary schools are kept only a half-day, in the forenoon or afternoon. In the town of Appenzell the teachers are elected by the "Great Council," (*Grosse Rath*), and in the country districts by the respective village councils. Every teacher must possess a certificate of qualification, and remains in his place as long as he fulfills his duties satisfactorily. He is entitled to a decent dwelling and a garden, besides his money salary, which varies from 800 to 940 francs in the towns, and from 210 to 600 in the rural neighborhoods. The attendance at school has as a general rule not been very good. The number of schools is 17, and the total number of scholars in 1865, was 1,215. A *Repetition school* is much needed.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BASLE-TOWN.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT.

BASLE (*Basilea*) was known to the Romans, who built here a castle against the invasions of the Alemanni, who came afterwards into its possession, until 406, when it became part of the empire of the Franks, and when this empire was divided in 843, it fell to the portion of Lewis, the German emperor. In 917 the city was totally destroyed by the Huns, but rebuilt by the emperor Henry I, then belonged for some time to Burgundy, and since 1032 again to the German empire. About the middle of the 11th century it became a "free city," in which (1431 to 1443) the famous council of Basle was held. In 1444 the city was besieged by the Duke of Armagnac, who had to retreat without having accomplished his object of subduing the city, after the battle of St. Jacob, (a hospital close to the city,) where 1500 Swiss triumphed gloriously over 30,000 French. To obtain security against its various enemies Basle joined the Swiss confederacy in 1501. About this time flourished at Basle the famous printing house of Amerbach, then one of the first in Europe. After the union with Switzerland the democratic element gained the ascendancy, so that in 1516 a great number of the nobility emigrated, after which comparative quiet prevailed till the years 1830-33, when after some disturbances, "Basle-Country" seceded from "Basle-Town;" and since that date Basle has been divided into two independent Cantons, viz: Basle-Town, which comprises the city of Basle, and several adjacent communes, having together in 1860, a population of 41,251 inhabitants on an area of ten square miles; and Basle County, which on an area of 174 square miles, had a population of 51,773 inhabitants; an aggregate of 93,024 inhabitants.

The government of the Canton is in the Grand Council of 280 members, from which an executive board, or Little Council of 60 members is chosen.

I. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BASLE-TOWN.

The town or city of Basle has always been famous for its educational facilities, and its University, founded in 1459, by Pope Pius II, was the first great Seminary established in Switzerland. In August of that year the burgomaster and town-council sent a petition to the Pope, asking for the privilege of establishing a University, and in November of the same year the Pope graciously granted their petition.. The University was inaugurated with the most imposing ceremonies of the Church, on the 4th April 1860, and on the following day the lectures were commenced. The

founders of the University had judged rightly, that Basle, on account of its geographical position, would form a kind of exchange of sciences for the different nations whose boundaries here converged. Many of the first professors of law came from Erfurt and Heidelberg; professors of belles-lettres and Roman law, from Italy, whilst from Paris the realistic doctrine of scholasticism was soon transplanted to Basle. This great end was, however, only had in view for a comparatively short time, and soon the University became exclusively German. Among the eminent men of learning that taught at the University of Basle during the first century of its existence, we may mention Erasmus, Oecolampadius, Grynaeus and others. Large numbers of students from all parts flocked to the old city, and made it for some time one of the most famous seats of learning in Europe. Thus from 1460 till 1469, 1199 students were entered on the lists; from 1470 till 1479, 1201; from 1480 till 1489, 690, and from 1490 till 1499, 700. Since then the number of students steadily declined from various reasons, partly outward, such as wars, pestilence, and the formation of other Universities in neighboring countries. In 1529 the doctrines of the Reformation gained firm ground in Basle; many of the old professors and students left, and the University was closed for some time, to be reorganized completely in consonance with the principles of the reformers. Though never again attended by as large number of students as during the first 40 years of its existence, it has always maintained an honorable position among European Universities, and Bernoulli, Meriau, Euler, de Wette, Hagenbach, and Wackernagle, have shed new lustre on it.

The educational institutions of the Canton of Basle-Town, include:

I. Elementary Schools; II. Secondary Schools, consisting of (1) Real Schools; (2) Real Gymnasium; (3) Humanistic, or Classical Gymnasium; (4) Industrial or Technical Gymnasium; (5) Pedagogium; III. The University; IV. Female Schools.

All these establishments are under government control. The highest authority is the Little Council (*Kleine Rath*) or executive board of the Grand Council, assisted by a Committee on Education consisting of nine members. This committee has to consider all the laws, and to lay them before the Little Council for its approval. Over each one of the schools there is a Committee of Inspection, consisting of five members, chosen by the Little Council, and subordinate to the Committee on Education, (*Erziehungs Comité*). There is one Committee of Inspection for the Boys' Primary Schools and the Real Schools, one for the Real Gymnasium and the Industrial School, one for the Humanistic Gymnasium, one for the Pedagogium or Normal School and the University, one for the Girls' Primary Schools, and one for the Higher Girls' School.

The Rector or Principal of the Real School attends the meetings of the Committee, and has an advisory vote, and is accompanied by one of the teachers. The Committee of Inspection must see that all laws are properly carried out, select the text-books, propose changes in the plan of instruction and rules and regulations, and make an annual report.

I. *Elementary Schools for Boys.*

These schools receive pupils only six years of age, and carry them through a three years' course in three classes. The course comprises: reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, German, and religion. The number of hours per week is fixed at 26. The school-fee is one franc per month. At every elementary boys' school there is one head-master and two teachers, each obliged to teach 26 hours per week. The town has to provide and keep in repair the school-houses, and a dwelling for the teacher or an equivalent pay in an additional sum of 300 francs annually. The salaries of teachers vary from 1 franc 60 centimes, to 1 franc 75 centimes, for each recitation hour. After having served ten years, a teacher is entitled to an increase of salary.

II. *Secondary Schools.*

(1.) *The Real School* continues the work of instruction where the Elementary School leaves it, in four courses of one year each, as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Religion, - - -	3	2	2	2
German, - - - -	6	4	3	3
French, - - - -	4	6	6	6
Arithmetic, - - -	5	4	4	4
Geometry, - - -	1	2	2	2
History and Geography,	3	3	3	2
Natural Sciences, - -	-	-	2	2
Singing, - - - -	2	2	2	2
Writing, - - - -	4	3	2	2
Drawing, - - - -	-	2	2	4
	<hr/> 28	<hr/> 28	<hr/> 28	<hr/> 29

The staff of teachers at the Real School consists of one Rector, three Head-masters, and a number of teachers and assistant teachers as circumstances require.

(2.) *The Real Gymnasium* builds further on the foundation laid in the Elementary School; and gives instruction in more general knowledge and educates pupils so as to fit them for entering the Industrial School. This Gymnasium has five classes, and pupils are received from the age of nine years to fourteen years. The course of instruction is as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Religion, - - -	2	2	1	1	1
German, - - -	5	5	5	3	3
French, - - -	7	7	7	7	7
History, - - -	-	3	3	3	3
Geography, - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics, - -	4	4	4	5	6
Natural Philosophy,	2	2	2	2	2
Natural History, -	3	3	3	3	3
Calligraphy, - -	4	3	2	2	2
Drawing, - - -	-	-	2	2	2
Singing, - - -	2	2	2	1	1
Gymnastics, - - -	2	2	2	2	2

(3.) *Humanistic Gymnasium*, (with six classes,) prepares pupils for the *Pedagogium*, and likewise for the Industrial School. The course of instruction is as follows :

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion,	2	2	1	1	1	1
Latin,	6	6	7	8	8	8
Greek,	-	-	-	-	7	7
French,	-	-	5	5	3-5	4
German,	5	-	3	3	2	2
History,	-	2	2	2	2-5	2
Geography,	3	2	2	2	2	1
Mathematics,	5	5	4	3	4	4
Nat. History,	-	-	-	2	2	-
Writing,	4	3	2	1	-	-
Drawing,	-	-	2	2	2	-
Singing,	2	2	2	1	-	-

The staff of teachers consists of one Rector, five Head-masters, and a corresponding number of teachers and assistant teachers. If a class exceeds 60 scholars, it must be subdivided in two.

(4.) *The Industrial School* aims at giving a higher “realistic” education, thus preparing pupils to enter into commercial life, or to continue their studies at some special technical school. It has three classes of one year each, admitting pupils from the age of 14-17, and besides, a half-year’s course, chiefly to prepare pupils for the Polytechnic Schools. All the subjects are obligatory. The course of instruction is as follows :

CLASSES.	I.		II.		III.		IV.
	1st Hf.-yr.	2d Hf.-yr.	1st Hf.-yr.	2d Hf.-yr.	1st Hf.-yr.	2d Hf.-yr.	One Hf.-yr. only.
German, - -	6	6	4	4	4	4	-
French, - - -	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
English, - -	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
History, - -	3	3	3	2	3	2	-
National Economy,	-	-	-	-	2	-	-
Natural History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Physics, - -	-	1	3	3	2	2	2
Chemistry, - -	-	-	2	2	2	2	2
Mechanics, -	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Mathematics, -	7	7	4	6	4	6	6
Drawing, - -	4	4	4	4	4	4	6
Gymnastics, -	1	1	1	1	-	-	-
	<hr/> 31	<hr/> 32	<hr/> 31	<hr/> 32	<hr/> 31	<hr/> 32	<hr/> 38

Instruction is imparted partly by professors from the University, partly by special teachers. Candidates for admission must undergo an examination in German, French, and mathematics, and only scholars who have successfully finished the fifth class at one of the two Gymnasiums, are exempt from it.

(5.) *The Pedagogium*. This institution is intended to continue the education received at the Humanistic Gymnasium, and prepare pupils for entering the University. It has a three years’ course, and the plan of studies is the following :

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.
Latin, - - - -	8	8	8
Greek, - - - -	6	6	6
German, - - - -	3	3	3
French, - - - -	3	3	2
History, - - - -	4	4	3
Mathematics and Physics, -	4	4	4
Religion, - - - -	-	-	2
Introduction to Philosophy, -	-	-	-

Instruction is given by the University professors, and special teachers.

The Rectors, Head-masters of Elementary Schools and other schools, are appointed for life; the other teachers are only engaged for a certain space of time specially stipulated.

The salary of the Rector of the Real School is 2,900 francs, with lodging and fuel; Head-master 1 franc 75 centimes, teachers 1 franc 5 centimes, assistant teachers 1 franc, per *hour*. The Rector of the Real Gymnasium, and the one of the Humanistic Gymnasium, has 3,300 francs, with lodging and fuel; the Head-master, 2 francs 15 centimes per hour; assistant teachers, 1 francs 5 centimes per hour. At the Industrial School, and at the Pedagogium, the hour is paid with $2\frac{1}{2}$ – $4\frac{1}{2}$ francs. The Head-masters of the Real School and the two Gymnasiums, can claim 28 hours per week. By a law of December 6, 1858, teachers of the Elementary Schools, the Real School, and the two Gymnasiums, receive after ten years' service, an increase of salary of 200–400 francs; after 15 years, again 100 francs, and the Rectors 500. The school-fees amount to 1 franc at the Real School, (and 20 Rappen for stationery,) 8 francs at the Industrial School, 10 francs at the Pedagogium.

III. *The University.*

The University of Basle, established in 1459, was reorganized in 1806. It has four Departments, viz: Theology, Law, Medicine, and Philosophy. The Department of Philosophy has two divisions, viz: 1. Philosophy and History; 2. Natural Sciences and Mathematics. Philosophy proper, belongs as a connecting link to both divisions. In the Department of Philosophy, there are generally 4–5 Professors; in the Department of Theology, 4–5; in the Law Department, 3; and in the Department of Medicine, 8. As at the German Universities, the Professors are either “ordinary,” or “extraordinary”; there are likewise private tutors, (*Privat docenten*.) The appointments are for life. The salary of an Ordinary Professor is usually 3,000 francs; that of the Prosector in the Medical Department, 2,000 francs. The salary of Extraordinary Professors varies. Professors are generally obliged to lecture from 10–12 hours per week; those in the Department of Philosophy, from 12–14 hours.

All the Professors form the so-called “Academic Regency,” and choose annually from their midst, a Rector, which office cannot be held more than twice in succession by the same person. The Regency must see to the general welfare of the whole institution, draw up the plan of studies for

every year, have the superintendence of the discipline and diligence of the students, manage the University property, distribute the stipends, and superintend the library and museums. Each Department manages its own affairs by a Council of all its Professors, one of them, chosen annually as Dean, (*Decan*), presiding. In order to matriculate, a certificate of maturity examination at the Gymnasium is required.

In connection with the University there are a number of collections, viz: a Library, Museum of Antiquities, Art Museum, Museum of Natural History, Botanical, Anatomical and other collections, which are managed by separate committees. The government annually grants a subsidy of 12,000 francs towards the maintenance and increase of these collections. The number of students varies from 100 to 130, each session.

IV. *Female Schools.*

(1.) There are four *Elementary Schools*, of six classes of one year each. The chief subjects of instruction are: reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, German, needle-work, (in the higher classes French,) history, geography, and natural science. In the lower three classes, the number of hours per week is 24, and in the upper three, 26; of these, 8 are devoted to female work. Girls are obliged to attend school from the age of 6-12. At every Elementary School there are two teachers, each of whom teaches 34 hours per week. Besides these, there are assistant teachers, and special female teachers for the female work.

(2.) *The Higher Girls' School* is a continuation of the fourth class of the Elementary School, and consists of five classes of one year each. Subjects of instruction are: religion, German, French, history, geography, elements of natural sciences, arithmetic, writing, drawing, singing, female work; number of hours per week, 28, besides two hours devoted to gymnastics.

At the head of a Higher Girls' School there is a Rector, 2-3 Head-masters, and a number of assistant and female teachers. Rectors and Head-masters of the Elementary and Higher Girls' Schools are appointed for life. The salaries are, in Elementary Schools: in the three lower classes, 1 franc 3 centimes; in the three upper classes, 1 franc 45 centimes; female teachers, 60-80 centimes, per hour. The Rector of the Higher Girls' School has 3,300 francs, with lodging and fuel; the Head-master, 1 franc 75 centimes - 2 francs; assistant teachers, 1 franc 5 centimes - 1 franc 75 centimes; female teachers, 60-89 centimes, per hour. After ten years' service, the salary is increased by from 200-400 francs, and after 15 years, by 100 francs again. After the same number of years' service the Rector's salary is increased by 500 francs.

Country District of Basle-Town.

The education in the *country district* of the Canton "Basle-Town," comprising the three villages of Riehen, Bettingen and Kleinhüningen, is regulated by the law of 1861. According to this law, there are the following schools: Elementary Schools, Half-day Schools, and Working Schools.

The *Elementary Schools* are intended to give an elementary education to pupils of both sexes; they have a six years' course, at Riehen with six classes, in the two other villages three classes with two divisions each. Subjects of instruction are: reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, German, religion, the most important facts of history, geography, and natural science. The number of hours per week is 22 for the lower two classes, and 26-28 for the upper four.

The *Half-day Schools* are intended to repeat, expand, and supplement the knowledge acquired in the Elementary School. They have a two years' course, with one or two classes. Boys are instructed in business composition and geometry. The number of hours per week, (confined to the forenoon,) is 18.

The *Industrial Schools* are intended to instruct girls in female work. Number of hours per week, 6-9.

Children are obliged to attend school from the age of 6-14. The school-fee amounts, in the Elementary Schools, to 1 franc 20 centimes per quarter; in the Half-day Schools, to 8 centimes; in the Working School, instruction is gratis. In every school there is to be a school-fund or treasury, for stationery, &c. This fund is maintained by interests of any school-property, by gifts of every new-married couple, government subsidies, legacies, &c. Instruction is imparted either by a Head-master or teacher. The Head-master in Riehen gets 95 centimes per hour; the second teacher 90; the third teachers 85, the Head-master and teachers in the two other villages get 85 centimes per hour; the school-mistress at Riehen gets 50 centimes per hour; the female teachers there and in the other two villages, 40-50. After a ten years' service, the salary of teachers is increased by 150 francs per annum; and after 15 years, by 100 francs. All the teachers have free lodging, some field or garden, and a certain amount of fuel. Teachers are elected and dismissed by the Committee on Education. For the country schools there is an Inspector, chosen for six years, who is paid 200 francs per year. He has the general superintendence of all schools in the Country Districts. He has a seat in the Committee on Education as an advisory member. At every Elementary School the immediate superintendence is confided to a school committee, consisting of the pastor of the village as President, and four members chosen by the inhabitants of the village, for six years.

V. *Private and Supplementary Schools.*

Besides these public institutions, Basle City possesses a number of *private schools*. Thus, the "Society for the Public Good," founded in 1776, by Isaac Iselin, (numbering in 1863, 841 members, each paying an annual contribution of 10 francs,) maintains six schools. This society possesses property to the amount of 122,000 francs; and in 1863 the revenue amounted to 64,000 francs, the expenditure to 36,700. The most important of the schools maintained by this society, is the *Factory School*, in which free instruction is given several evenings a week, to the boys working in the factories.

The French Repetition School gives, without charge, young men who are engaged in mercantile pursuits an opportunity to continue their French studies and keep up the knowledge acquired at school. There is also a school of Modeling and Design, for various artisans; Evening Schools for children of poor parents, where they are taught drawing, reading, singing, &c., three evenings a week; and a Sunday School for girls.

VI. *Statistics.*

At the *University*, in the winter of 1865–66, there were 106 matriculated students, 20 not matriculated; summer 1866, 99 matriculated, 36 not matriculated. In the winter 1865–66, 41 professors read 74 lectures; in the summer 1866, 37 professors, 76 lectures. Winter 1866–67, the number of students was 105. At the *Gymnasium*, there were in summer 1866, 51 scholars, and in winter 1866–67, 46. The number of students at the *Industrial School* was 118. At the *Humanistic Gymnasium*, there were in 1865, 386, and in 1866, 413 scholars. At the *Real Gymnasium*, in 1866, 366, and in 1866–1867, 403. At the *Real School*, in 1866, 349, and 1866–67, 405. The *Elementary Boys' Schools* had 670 pupils, (330 from other Cantons and 106 foreigners,) in December, 1866, 692. The *Elementary Girls' Schools* had 1,193 pupils, (506 from other Cantons, 171 foreigners.) In the *Country Districts*, the schools were attended in 1865–66, by 352 children, and in 1866–67, by 382. The number of pupils at the *Working School* was 133, (all girls.)

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BASLE-COUNTRY.

AREA—POPULATION.

THE Canton of Basle-Country, formerly united with Basle-Town, seceded from the latter after a short but sanguinary civil war in 1832, caused by the jealousy of the aristocratic tendency of the city and cantonal government entertained by the democratic population of the country. The population in 1860 was 51,773, on an area of 174 square miles.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The first school-law of the new Canton dates from April 6, 1835. The highest authority is a Board of Education, (*Erziehungsrath*), consisting of seven members, elected by the government of the Canton. Every second year 3-4 members retire and new ones are chosen. These members receive a remuneration. For the special inspection of the schools the Government nominates a School Inspector for five years, who draws an annual salary of 1,200 francs, and 4 francs journey money per day when traveling. In every village or town there is a School Board of 3-5 members, for the local schools. A law of 1858 provides for the establishment of District School Boards for each district, to consist of five members.

1. *Primary Schools.*

There is a *Primary School* in every village, except that two small villages may have one in common. Every parent must (law of March 6, 1863,) give at least an elementary education to his children. Absence from school is strictly punished. Children at private schools must undergo the same annual or semi-annual examinations as those of the public schools, and if their knowledge is not found to be of a satisfactory character, the Inspector is authorized to require their attendance at a public school. Every child is obliged to attend school for five hours every day from the age of 6-12. The law of 1855 provides that no one is to be dismissed from school until the highest class has been reached. From the time of leaving school till the end of the 15th year of their age with Catholics, and the time of their confirmation with Protestants, children must attend the Repetition School. Besides the common school hours some time each week is to be assigned to the acquisition and singing of patriotic and religious songs. The subjects of instruction in the primary schools are: reading, German grammar, arithmetic, biblical history, geography and history of Switzerland, general geography and history, natural history, singing, calligraphy and drawing.

For the purpose of educating teachers, an agreement is to be entered into with some other Canton, in which there is a well-regulated Teachers' Seminary. Candidates for teaching must pass an examination. If a place is vacant and there are several candidates who have all passed the examination satisfactorily, the Village Council assembles and decides by ballot. The place is always given for five years. The salary amounts to 250 francs, with lodging, fuel and good land, &c. All teachers are obliged to participate in an annual pedagogical course instituted by the School Inspector.

A law of Dec. 8, 1840, provides for the establishment of an Industrial School for Girls. The female teacher gets an annual salary of 40 francs, and the assistant teachers 20 francs. There is always to be one teacher for 40 scholars. Girls from 8–12 are obliged to attend this school; there are to be 4 hours instruction at least per week.

2. *Secondary Schools.*

Besides the primary schools there are *District Schools*, established by law of 1835, and by the revised law of 1851. These schools have a three years' course, and prepare pupils for higher institutions of learning, having regard at the same time to the demands of practical life. The subjects taught in these schools are: German, French, history, geography, arithmetic, geometry, botany, zoology, mineralogy, physics, chemistry, calligraphy, drawing, singing; all these subjects are obligatory: Latin and Greek are optional.

3. *Statistics.*

In 1864 there were 70 school communes, (*Schulgemeinden*), with 103 primary teachers, 80 female teachers for the working-schools, and 13 assistant female teachers. The Primary Schools were attended by 6,325, and the Repetition School by 1,867 children. There are four District Schools and two Secondary Schools, for girls. There are no higher schools in the Canton, but the government extends pecuniary aid to talented young men who wish to study at some University or technical school. According to the law of April 2, 1853, they must, in order to obtain such aid, undergo an examination oral and written, and embracing German, Latin, Greek, French, history, geography, mathematics, natural sciences, physical anthropology.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BERNE.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

BERNE originally formed part of the Roman empire. After this had been destroyed by the Alemanni, the Burgundians settled on the greater part of the territory in the 5th century. It then formed part of the empire of the Franks; towards the end of the 9th century, of the Duchy of Burgundy; and in the 11th century, of the German empire. Towards the end of the 12th century, the city of Berne was built by Kuno von Bubenberg, and in the year 1218 the Emperor Frederick II declared it a free city. In 1353 Berne joined the Swiss confederation. During the 16th century Berne took its full share in the victorious wars of the Swiss against Austria, Burgundy, Milan, and Spain. In 1528 the doctrines of the Reformation were almost universally accepted in Berne, and along with Zurich it soon became the leading reformed Canton. The present constitution, in its main features, dates from 1846. In 1860, on a territory of 2,561 square miles, there was a population of 468,516 inhabitants; of these, 466,862 were protestants, and 58,572 were catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The present organization of public instruction dates from the constitution of 1831, the twelfth paragraph of which is as follows: "Every man must see that the children entrusted to his care enjoy the benefit of elementary instruction; the supervision of education is a sacred duty devolving on the nation and its representatives." From 1832 to 1845, the legislature was very active in perfecting the educational system, and the result was embodied in the law of 1847, which was revised in 1856.

School Authorities. The highest authority is the Board of Education, (*Erziehungsdirection*), and four to six school inspectors, who are entrusted with the immediate supervision of the primary and secondary schools of the Canton. In every parish there is a Primary school committee, chosen by the Common Council, and composed of from three to nine members. There is likewise a committee of five members for every secondary school, chosen partly by the contributing parish or district authorities, or private individuals, who have a share in the undertaking, and partly by the cantonal board of education, in proportion to their contributions. The board of education also nominates the president. For each of the two cantonal schools there is a committee of from five to eight members, nominated by the board of education.

Grades of Schools. The educational establishments are classed as follows: 1. Elementary or primary schools; 2. Secondary schools, including real-schools and progymnasias; and 3. Scientific schools, including the cantonal schools and the university.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The primary schools receive children from their sixth year to their first communion, which is about their fourteenth or fifteenth year. The instruction is divided into three grades or periods—from the 6 to 8, 9 to 12, 13 to 14, and includes religion, mother tongue (French or German), mathematics, history, and geography.

Religious instruction is limited to the reading of a select series of biblical narratives from the Old and New Testament, and the learning by heart of verses from the Bible. In the second grade, the Lord's prayer and the Ten Commandments are learned; and in the third, the Confession of Faith. In some schools the Heidelberg Catechism is used.

The instruction in the native tongue (*Sprachunterricht*) is excellently organized; it is divided into object-lessons, writing, and reading. The object-lessons commence with the well-known objects of the schoolroom, the house, etc., and combine with this the formation of correct ideas on these objects, their properties, and the uses to which they are put. By continual repetition these are firmly impressed on the memory, and by adding new objects the intellectual horizon is widened; and by connecting all the associated ideas on one object, a beginning is made of giving simple descriptions of various objects, including the most common inanimate things, plants, animals, occupations of men, and natural phenomena. These object-lessons are made interesting and complete by simple narratives suggested by the various objects, and by showing the proper conduct of children in their manifold relations to God, their parents, neighbors, the school, and nature. In the speaking-lessons, great care is taken to teach the children the proper use of the singular and plural, and by using the simple and most essential forms of a compound sentence, their sense of grammatical utterance is gradually and correctly developed without having recourse to a grammatical text-book. In reading and writing, the organs of hearing and speaking are first of all developed by comprehending correctly and speaking distinctly after the teacher, sounds, syllables and words, and by representing correctly on paper the elementary forms. This is followed by writing and reading the names of such objects as have been seen and impressed on the mind, and composing short sentences on these objects. Then follows the reading of simple narratives, descriptions, poems, and the copying of some of these pieces and writing after dictation, writing pieces learnt by heart, correcting these pieces after the printed copy, etc. These exercises are continued in the second and third grade, and much stress is laid on correct and expressive reading. The faculty of speaking is to be developed by giving correct answers, and by reproducing orally some piece that has been read. The writing of

these two grades, is writing from dictation, and "writing about," (*aufschreiben*,) or composing. The writing from dictation, aims at a correct orthography and punctuation; the "writing about," is the free reproduction of some piece that has been read, and the composing tends to develop the ideas of the pupil himself. This last mentioned exercise, at first is made after given models, and has special regard to descriptions, letter-writing, etc. During the last two years, more difficult themes are selected. In the second grade, grammatical instruction is commenced, and continued as far as the compound sentences, whilst in the third grade the syntax is reviewed and practiced by analytical exercises.

The elements of arithmetic are taught in the two first grades, and decimals are first introduced in the sixth year, with instruction in regard to coins, measures, and weights. Fractions, (simple and compound,) percentage, etc., as well as proportion, are only taught in the third grade.

The instruction in *mathematics*, beyond arithmetic, during the first four years, has no special hours assigned to it, but is merely introduced as occasion offers, in the object-lessons, writing, and drawing. In the fifth year regular hours are assigned, and as far as possible the following subjects are taught during the fifth and sixth year: lines, angles, triangles, parallel lines, parallelograms, polygons, and planimetry. The first part of the third grade, (14th to 15th year,) is occupied with a repetition and more thorough review of the subjects studied in the second grade, advancing gradually to trigonometry and stereometry, and finally to some lessons in practical surveying.

In the first grade, *history* is mentioned in connection with the object-lessons, but forms a separate branch of instruction only in the second grade, commencing with short biographies of famous Swiss, and gradually advancing to more general history.

Instruction in *geography* commences with a description of the pupil's dwelling-place and its environs, and comprises practical lessons on the horizon and the quarters of the heavens, and the peculiarities of land and water. After this, follows geography of Switzerland, its orography, hydrography, and ethnography. The course of instruction in the third grade comprises: mathematical geography, review of Swiss geography, special geography of the Canton of Berne, orography, hydrography, and political geography of Europe, and a general description of the other parts of the world.

Instruction in *natural history* commences in the second grade, with a description and comparison of the most important indigenous plants, the most important insects and animals, and finally, includes a statement of the physical qualities of metals and the uses to which they are put. In the third grade, the first two years are occupied with a description of the plants that are of importance in the household, in forest culture and agriculture; and in connection with this, instruction is given on vegetable physiology, and on the various ways of cultivating and improving garden, field, and forest plants. In mineralogy, likewise, such portions are chiefly

taught as may have some relation to agriculture, such as clay, granite, marl, gypsum, sandstone; sandy-soil, clay-soil, loamy-soil, humus-soil.

In *natural philosophy*, the phenomena of gravity, the lever, the pendulum, the pulley, the windlass, the crane, the fountain, diving-bell, barometer, siphon, &c., are the subjects of instruction. During the last two years, some knowledge of the human body is to be imparted, with special regard to dietetics. The following subjects are taught during the last two years: sound, light, warmth, electricity, and magnetism. In *chemistry*, sufficient instruction is given to explain the most common processes of the household and the farm.

The plan of studies for *writing* and *singing*, is likewise carefully worked out. *Drawing* is only formally begun in the second grade, and in the third grade it is taught in two separate branches, viz: free-hand and geometrical drawing, the latter not being obligatory.

Gymnastics were introduced in the primary schools by a special law of Feb. 17, 1864, and poor villages are entitled to assistance from government towards getting the necessary apparatus.

The law on primary schools states expressly that the Canton as well as the parish, must see that all children attend the primary school. Those parishes which send their children to the same primary school, form a school-district. A change in the existing division can only be made with the sanction of the cantonal authorities. It is not allowed to organize new schools with less than thirty children. There is a peculiar provision there, that the ablest scholars of different school-districts may be united in one common "upper school," in which case the state contributes 200 francs.

The law obliges parents and guardians to send their children punctually to school, and in cases of unavoidable absence, an excuse must be sent to the teacher. The school committees are to report on the cases of non-excused absence, to the Governor, (*Regierungsstatthalter*.) The primary schools admit children from the sixth year, and keep them, if protestants, till their first communion; if catholics, to the end of the 15th year. The number of hours per week is 18 during summer, and during winter, 30 for boys and 27 for girls.

With regard to the number of teachers at primary schools, the law provides that a school can only be taught by a single teacher, when in all grades of instruction there are not more than 80 scholars; in schools consisting only of two grades, not more than 90; and in schools of one grade, not more than 100 scholars. Whenever this number is exceeded, a new class must be formed within four years. Exceptions to the preceding rules can only be made with the sanction of the educational authorities.

Normal Schools, or Teachers' Institutes.

For the education of teachers for the German primary schools, there is a teacher's seminary at Berne, at which there are accommodations for 120 students, who have their board and lodging in the institution. The course of instruction occupies three years. Candidates for admission must be

seventeen years of age, and citizens of the Canton, or Swiss citizens whose parents have settled in the Canton. The instruction is gratis, but for board, lodging, washing, light, fuel, and medical attendance, an annual sum of 100 francs must be paid. Those, however, who are not citizens of the Canton, must also pay a fee for their instruction. Every student, on leaving, is pledged to teach in some public school for at least eight years; those who do not fulfill this condition are required to refund to the state the entire cost of their education.

The course of study embraces the following subjects in the several classes, with the hours devoted to the same in each class:

CLASSES.	III.	II.	I.
Pedagogics, - - -	1	3	6
Religion, - - -	3	3	3
German, - - -	7	7	7
French, - - -	3	3	2
Arithmetic, - - -	4	3	3
Geometry, - - -	2	2	2
Physics and Chemistry, -	2	2	1
Natural History, - -	2	2	1
History, - - -	3	3	2
Geography, - - -	2	2	2
Singing, - - -	3	3	3
Piano, - - -	2	2	2
Violin, - - -	2	2	1
Drawing, - - -	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - -	3	2	1
Gymnastics, - - -	2	2	2
Total, - - -	43	43	40

The instruction in pedagogics gives the general principles of education, and make the student acquainted with the best ways of instructing a good public school. In connection with this there are practical exercises in the model school.

In German, in the lowest class, the same ground is gone over again as in the public school, including grammar, with special regard to the dialect; in the middle classes, syntax, and in the highest class, a general revision of the whole subject. In connection with these exercises there are readings from selections of German prose and poetry, and in the highest class, a regular course of composition and prosody, and likewise an extensive course of German literature.

In mathematics, the instruction in the lower class comprises vulgar and decimal fractions, rule of three, etc.; in the middle class, geometrical proportions, rules of percentage, double rule of three, mercantile arithmetic, square and cube roots, elements of algebra, including equations of the first degree: in the highest class, logarithms, compound interest, equations of the second degree; and finally, a brief review of the whole arithmetical instruction and the way of applying it in the public schools.

The instruction in geometry during the first two years is confined to planimetry, and only in the last year are stereometry and trigonometry

taught. Physics and chemistry: first half-year of the lowest class, elements of physics; second half-year of the middle class, sound, light, warmth, magnetism, and electricity; in the second half-years of the lowest and middle classes, chemistry.

Natural history is likewise taught in the first half-years of the lowest and middle classes, first meteorology and anatomy of plants, systematic botany, with special regard to the plants used in agriculture, manufactures, and medicine. In the second half-year of the lowest class, mineralogy, physiology, and anthropology, are taught; in the second half-year of the middle class, zoology. In the first half-year of the highest class, popular agriculture is taught, and zoology finished. The last half-year is devoted to a complete review of the instruction in natural philosophy and physics.

History: in the lower class, history of the East, the Greeks, and Romans; in fact all ancient history; in the middle class, history of Switzerland till 1798; in the highest class, history of the middle ages, and modern history; history of Switzerland from 1798 till the present time.

In geography, a general introduction, comprising mathematical and physical geography, is followed by a description of the different parts of the world, dwelling at greater length on the European possessions in Africa, Asia, America, and Australia; in the middle class, geography of Europe; and in the highest class, special geography of Switzerland, a more extended course of mathematical and physical geography; and finally, a review of the whole geographical instruction.

Instruction in drawing consists partly in free-hand drawing, partly in geometrical drawing. A good deal of out-of-door work is in the first place intended to contribute to the health of the students, but likewise for practice in this sort of work.

For teachers who have already received their certificate, excellent instruction is given at the seminary in the so-called "repetition-courses." They receive their board and instruction gratuitously; the course lasts three months, during summer. Thus teachers, who otherwise might, in some out of the way village, become a prey to mental stagnation, get a new impetus, are made acquainted with everything new in the educational field, and have altogether an opportunity to fill up any gaps in their knowledge.

The faculty of instruction in the normal school consists of one director, five teachers, and some assistant teachers. These are all nominated by the government council, for six years only. The salary of the director is 2,500 francs, (and free lodging,) if his wife is able to take care of the household; if not, only 2,200 francs, because in that case a special house-keeper has to be paid. The teachers receive at most 2,200 francs, and the assistant teachers, who live in the building, free board and lodging, and 800 francs. All the teachers are obliged to give 25 hours instruction per week.

There is a second teachers' seminary at Porrentruy, for the French portion of the Canton, with only thirty scholars, divided into three classes. In

connection with this seminary, there is a model primary school, giving an opportunity to the student to practice teaching. The number of pupils in this model school never exceeds forty. They are received for three years, and special attention is given to those who intend to become teachers, in which case they may remain in the model school till they can enter the seminary. The poorer scholars pay an annual sum of 80 francs for board, &c. The model school is under the superintendence of a primary teacher, who gets free board and lodging, and 700 francs a year.

Strict order and discipline are maintained in these Teachers' Seminaries. In summer the students rise at half-past four, and in winter at five o'clock; study hour till seven; then breakfast; afterwards the students attend to domestic duties, such as clearing the dining-room, washing up the breakfast things, cleaning the lamps, and bringing wood and water. Instruction is given from 8 to 12; dinner and recreation, 12 to 1; 1 to 2, work in the garden, cut wood, &c. recitation from 2 to 4. During a short interval at 4, lunch; study hour from 5 to 7. Supper at 7; then free time, during which the pupils prepare the vegetables for the following day. Study hour from 8 to 9.

Two schools have likewise been organized for the education of primary female teachers; one for the German part of the Canton at Handelbank, and one for the French at Delsperg. The course at each of these institutions continues at least two years, and the average number of pupils is 15, who only form one class. Each of these establishments has one director, one teacher, and one assistant teacher. The director has a salary of 2,500 francs and free lodging; the teachers have 1,500 francs, and the assistant teachers from 600 to 1,000 francs.

Every vacancy in the primary schools is published in the official papers, giving an exact account of the duties and emoluments of the place. In case the school committee desires it, candidates must undergo an examination, which is held publicly by the school inspector. It consists in writing a composition, giving lessons in the various branches, and playing some piece on the piano. A short oral examination may be combined with this, if thought desirable. The school committee, in conjunction with the inspector, proposes several candidates, one of which is elected by the common council by ballot, who is then confirmed by the cantonal "board of education," and holds his place for life. Although obedient to the regulations of the school authorities, the teachers exercise their functions with great independence of parental interference.

To obtain a certificate of qualification, every candidate for a primary school undergoes an examination, which is held annually at a certain fixed time. The committee of examination consists of eleven members, and is nominated by the "board of education." The director of the seminary is present at the examination, and has an advisory vote. Only native Swiss are admitted to this examination; foreigners only if they have been educated at some Swiss school, or have lived in Switzerland at least three years. The examination is both theoretical and practical. The theoreti-

cal examination is oral and written; the oral examination is public, and the written is conducted under special supervision. The examination relates to all the obligatory branches of instruction which are taught in the Teachers' Seminaries, with the exception of gymnastics and agriculture. At the written examination the following is required: a composition in the native language, writing of a German and a French letter, and the solution of various mathematical problems. At the oral examination the following is required: pedagogics; a knowledge of the bodily and mental development of children; a thorough knowledge of the nature, the elements, the ways and means of education; a knowledge of public schools, the various ways in which they are organized, and their history with special regard to the Canton Berne; loud, correct, and impressive reading; clearness and skill in the rendering of pieces read, and the ability to show the leading train of thought and the logical development of the story or poem; grammar and prosody, and the history of German literature. In French, very much the same is required. In mathematics: common arithmetic, algebra, square and cube roots, proportions, equations of the first degree, planimetry, stereometry, and practical geometry. In natural history: physics and chemistry, special regard being paid to those parts which have reference to practical life. In history: thorough knowledge of Swiss history, and the leading features of general history. In geography: mathematical, physical, and political geography of the whole world, special geography of Switzerland and Canton Berne. The practical examination comprises a trial lesson, for which a quarter of an hour's preparation is allowed; singing, playing a piece on the piano, organ, or violin; drawing of some simple object from nature; specimens of calligraphy. All candidates must, besides the foregoing, undergo a thorough examination in religion.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Secondary schools have a two-fold aim, viz: First, to give the education required for any industrial or mercantile pursuit; and secondly, to impart the preliminary knowledge required for entering the cantonal school. They are divided into real-schools and progymnasia. Pupils are, as a rule, only to be admitted in spring; in exceptional cases, however, they may be admitted at any time. Every candidate for admission must undergo an examination, which decides in which class he is to be placed. For entering the lowest class the requisites are: correct reading and understanding of some short piece of prose or poetry; knowledge of simple sentences; writing of a short tale with few orthographical faults, and some arithmetical problems. Higher demands are made for entering the higher classes. If, after a month's time, it becomes evident, either that the pupil is, after all, not yet fit for the class, or that he is further advanced than was thought, he may either be put back one class, or put one class higher. There are very strict regulations with regard to the scholars absenting themselves from school. Reports as to the diligence and the conduct of

the pupils are made out four times a year, which are sent to the parents or guardians, who sign and return them to the school, where they are kept till the pupil leaves it.

According to the number of teachers, the real-schools are divided into three kinds: 1. Real-schools with one division; 2. Real-schools with two divisions; 3. Real-schools with three divisions. The course of studies is varied accordingly. Most real-schools belong to the second class (that with two divisions). The number of classes varies with the number of teachers employed. The number of recitation hours is not to exceed thirty-three either for teachers or pupils.

In German, the following is aimed at: ready and correct reading; correct explanation of suitable pieces of prose and poetry. In grammar, the simple and compound sentence, formation of words, &c.; composition and letter-writing; learning by heart of select pieces of prose and poetry. The chief aim is to awaken the self-activity of the pupil in finding out the meaning of some sentence, or the ideas expressed in some poem, &c.

In French, the grammar alone is gone through, in the secondary schools with one division. In those with two or three divisions, German pieces are translated into French, and French authors are read; French composition and letter-writing is likewise practiced. In the higher divisions, the pupils are recommended to use the French language exclusively; in connection with the French reading, some notice is taken of French literature.

Instruction in mathematics comprises, in the schools with one division, the whole of arithmetic, algebra as far as equations of the first degree, rudiments of geometry and surveying. In the schools with two or three divisions, algebra as far as equations of the second degree, square and cubic roots, logarithms, &c., geometry, besides planimetry, also stereometry; and in the schools with three divisions only, also trigonometry.

In history, general history in biographical form is taught in all the schools, as well as the history and constitution of Switzerland. In the schools with two divisions, ancient history and history of the middle ages is taught; in the schools with three divisions, modern history, with special regard to the social and literary development of the nations, is taught.

Geography comprises, general geography, (physical and political,) special, physical, and political geography of Europe, special, physical, industrial, political, and commercial geography of Switzerland, with special regard to Canton Berne. Drawing of maps is practiced in all the schools, especially rapid sketches on the black-board and on slates.

Natural history: botany, general introduction into Linné's system. In the schools with two or three divisions, physiology of plants, zoology; in the schools with one division, description of some of the most important representatives of the various classes of animals, the general construction of the human body, and the functions of its various parts. In the schools with two or three divisions, the most important rules of dietetics are also taught. Mineralogy is taught in connection with the elements of chemis-

try, especially as regards agriculture and manufactures. Inorganic chemistry is likewise taught with special regard to the above mentioned branches.

Physics: in the schools with one division, the rudiments only are taught, which serve to explain the most common phenomena of nature, whilst in the schools with two or three divisions, a more exhaustive course of physics is given.

In all the schools, German and English calligraphy, and business letters and book-keeping are thoroughly attended to.

Instruction in drawing comprises, free-hand drawing, ornamental drawing, elements of perspective, geometrical drawing, drawing of machines, maps, and architectural plans.

In all the schools, instruction is given in gymnastics and singing.

There is an examination of the teachers in the secondary schools once a year. Candidates can only get their license after the completion of their twentieth year. For this examination one committee is appointed for the German and another for the French portion of the Canton, each consisting of seven members, chosen by the cantonal board of education. The examination is both theoretical (oral and written) and practical.

At the oral examination the following subjects are required: Religion; of Reformed candidates: a knowledge of the Bible, the articles of faith, biblical chronology and geography, church history, &c.; of Catholic candidates: knowledge of the Bible with regard to chronology and geography, the most important facts of church history, articles of faith and general regulations of the Catholic church. Pedagogics: a knowledge of psychology, development, ways and means of education, history of pedagogics. Native language: thorough knowledge of grammar, composition, literature, reading, &c. French, for German candidates: grammar, composition, literature, reading; the same for French candidates in German. Latin and Greek: grammar, general knowledge of literature, some Latin prose writer or poet. Mathematics: arithmetic, algebra as far as equations of the second degree, elements of analysis, planimetry, stereometry, and trigonometry. Natural history: mineralogy, zoology, botany, and anthropology. Elements of physics and mechanics; elements of chemistry. History: general history, Swiss history, special history of Berne. Geography: elements of mathematical geography, physical and political geography of the world, special geography of Switzerland, (particularly Berne). Singing: knowledge of the theory of singing, method of instruction in singing, singing of some pieces. Gymnastics: anatomy of the human body, history and different systems of gymnastics, practical application of the theoretical rules.

At the written examination the following is required: writing of a composition on some pedagogical theme; French composition in form of a letter; translation of some piece from French into German, and *vice versa*; translation of some piece from the native language into Latin or Greek, (use of dictionary allowed); solution of some algebraical, arithmetical, and geomet-

rical problems; calligraphy; problems in book-keeping and commercial arithmetic. In drawing, candidates have to exhibit sketches in free-hand and geometrical drawing, and answer some theoretical questions.

The practical examination comprises, giving of trial lessons in at least two branches of science, one of which must be a language; in gymnastics, knowledge of the technical terms and practice in the required exercises; in chemistry and physics, some knowledge of experimenting.

Every candidate, before the examination, mentions the special branches in which he wishes to be examined. The following, however, are obligatory: 1. Pedagogics and native language; 2. Either ancient languages and history, or French (for French candidates, German,) and history, or mathematics, natural sciences, and geography; 3. Two optional subjects, of which one must be a scientific one, (non-scientific subjects are: singing, drawing, writing, and gymnastics.) In order to get a license for teaching, the character "middling," (*mittelmässig*), is required (as a minimum) for all optional subjects, history, and geography; for all others, the character "pretty good," (*ziemlich gut*), as a minimum. Those who are not able to pass the first examination, are at liberty to try again after one year, and if again unsuccessful; they can make a third and last examination at the expiration of another year. The fee at the first examination is ten francs, at each of the other two, five francs.

The Schools for Mechanics and Trades are a new creation, whose organization dates from July 12th, 1866. Their foundation is not obligatory, but the law only says, that wherever the want of such schools is felt, they can be founded. The course of instruction in these schools is, as a general rule, to comprise the following subjects: Technical and artistic drawing, modeling, practical arithmetic, elements of geometry, business composition, book-keeping, (French and German,) elements of physics, chemistry, and technology. A committee is to be entrusted with the superintendence of each school. The expenses are to be met by school-fees, contributions from different associations, friends and benefactors of the school, legacies, donations, government contributions, &c. The school-fee is not to exceed five francs for each half-year.

III. CANTONAL HIGHER SCHOOLS.

There are in the Canton two cantonal schools, viz: A German one at Berne, and a French one at Porentruy. Each of these has two divisions: 1. A literary gymnasium, which is intended to prepare young people for the University; 2. A real gymnasium, intended to prepare young men for the Polytechnic school, (*Polytechnicum*.)

In connection with the cantonal school at Berne, there is an elementary school, in which children are admitted from the sixth year of their age. The lowest class of this elementary school is not to contain more than 50 pupils; the three higher classes, not more than 40; and in the literary and real gymnasium, the number in each class is never to exceed 30.

Every candidate for admission undergoes an examination; pupils com-

ing from any of the progymnasia usually enter the third class at once. In order to advance from a lower to a higher class, a so-called "examination of promotion" is required, and before leaving the institution for the University or Polytechnic school, a "maturity examination" is required.

The literary gymnasium has eight classes, (each of one year;) the real gymnasium likewise eight classes, (requiring only $7\frac{1}{2}$ years.) The elementary school has four classes, (each of one year.) The three higher classes of the literary gymnasium are called the "Upper Gymnasium;" the five lower ones the "Progymnasium." The school-fee in the elementary school amounts to nine francs per quarter; in the literary and real gymnasium, to fifteen francs (for each) per quarter. The admission fee is six francs, and three francs must be paid at each promotion.

The following is the course of instruction in the Literary Gymnasium:

CLASSES.	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion, - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1
Latin, - - -	7	7	6	6	6	8	7	7
Greek, - - -	-	-	5	5	6	7	7	7
Hebrew, - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3
German, - - -	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
French, - - -	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
History, - - -	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	3
Geography, - -	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
Mathematics, -	4	4	4	5	4	3	4	4
Natural History, -	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-
Physics, - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Drawing, - - -	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
Calligraphy, -	2	2	2	1	-	-	-	-
Singing, - - -	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Gymnastics, -	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-

In Latin, grammar is taught in the two lower classes, and Cæsar is read; in the fourth class, grammar is finished; and in the third class, the more difficult parts of grammar are more carefully taught. The following authors are read: in the lower classes, Cæsar, Ovid; in the upper gymnasium, Livy, Sallust, some of Cicero's Orations, Virgil's *Æneid*; in the second class, Cicero's Orations continued, Cicero's Epistles, Odes of Horace, *Æneids*, and Tacitus' *Germania*, some of Cicero's philosophical writings, Horace's Satires and Epistles; if time allows, Juvenal, Terence and Plautus; in the two highest classes, Roman literature.

In Greek, grammar is gone through in the three lower classes, (VI. V. IV.;) besides this, reading is practiced, and the pupils are made familiar with the Homeric dialect. The following authors are read: first two years, some selection; fourth class, Xenophon and Homer; third, second, and first classes, Herodotus, Homer continued, selections from Plato's writings, a tragedy of Sophocles, and finally Greek literature. Syntax is taught in the third and second classes.

Hebrew is only obligatory for those who intend to study theology; it comprises grammar, etymology, and syntax; in the first class, some portions of the Old Testament are read. In German, grammar is taught in six classes, viz: In the first four classes, syntax, etymology, interpunction; in the third, prosody, &c.; in the second, composition; in the first, Ger-

man literature. Exercises in composing and making of speeches are continued through all the classes. History is taught in the two lower classes in the form of biographies. A systematic representation of history is commenced in the sixth class, by teaching Swiss history till the Reformation. In the fifth and fourth classes, continuation of Swiss history and general history. Ancient history, in its pragmatism connection, is taught in the third class; history of the middle ages in the second class; modern history, having special regard to the political development of Switzerland, in the first class. Instruction in geography comprises general, physical, and political geography of the world, special geography of Switzerland, and special political geography of Europe. Instruction in mathematics, in the two lower classes, is confined to arithmetic; in the fifth class, proportions, primary numbers, &c.; elements of algebra and geometry. In the following classes all these subjects are continued, and extended to planimetry, stereometry, trigonometry, higher algebra, differential calculus, analysis, &c. In the first class, the whole field of mathematics is briefly gone over again. Natural history: general introduction, elements of mineralogy, botany, and zoology. Physics: in the second class, mechanics in the first class, electricity, magnetism, light, warmth, &c. Drawing is obligatory in the four lower classes; after that, it is optional. Drawing from nature commences in the sixth class; ornamental drawing in the fifth.

The Real-gymnasium has the following course of instruction :

CLASSES.	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion, -	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
German, -	5	5	5	4	4	3	3	2
French, -	6	6	6	6	5	4	3	3
English, -	-	-	-	-	4	3	2	-
Italian, -	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	-
History, -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Geography, -	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
Botany, -	-	-	2	2	-	-	2	2
Mineralogy, -	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-
Zoology, -	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-
Mathematics, -	5	6	7	8	-	-	-	-
Physics, -	-	-	-	-	2	3	2	1
Chemistry, -	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5
Artistic Drawing, 3	3	3	3	2	2	2	-	-
Technical " -	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Calligraphy and								
Book-keeping, 3	3	3	2	2	2	-	-	-
Singing, -	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Gymnastics, -	2	2	2	2	2	2	-	-

Special branches in the technical division :

CLASSES.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Mathematics, -	7	6	6	6
Descriptive Geometry, -	-	2	2	2
Practical Geometry, -	-	2	2	-
Technical Drawing, -	4	3	3	3
Mechanics, -	-	-	2	2

Special branches in the commercial division :

CLASSES.	IV.	III.	II.
Commercial Arithmetic, - - - - -	3	3	3
Book-keeping, - - - - -	2	2	-
Office practice, (Comptoir arbeiten,) - - - - -	2	-	-
Commercial Knowledge, - - - - -	2	2	-
Laws of Exchange, - - - - -	-	2	-
Commercial Geography, - - - - -	-	-	2
Knowledge of Goods, (Waarenkunde,) - - - - -	-	3	-
History of Commerce, - - - - -	-	-	2
Laws of Commerce, - - - - -	-	-	2
Calligraphy, - - - - -	-	1	-

Instruction in German is similar to that in the literary gymnasium; history likewise, in the four lower classes. From the fourth class upwards, more attention is paid to modern history. In the fourth class, the age of the great discoveries till the Peace of Westphalia, and the history of inventions and discoveries in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the third and second class, the time since the Peace of Westphalia, having special regard to Switzerland, England, and North America. In the first class, history of arts, sciences, industry, agriculture, &c.

In the geographical instruction, special attention is paid to climate and products, and the political geography of non-European countries.

Natural history: consists in object lessons in the sixth class, plants especially forming these objects of instruction; in the fifth class, the natural system is illustrated by some of the most important groups of plants, and during the second half-year, elementary mineralogy is taught; in the third class, first half-year, zoology; second half-year, crystallography, &c.; second class, anatomy of plants, organography, and during the second half-year, zoology; first class, anatomy and physiology of plants, (with microscopic demonstrations,) knowledge of the flora of Switzerland.

The instruction in mathematics is, in the lower classes, almost the same as in the literary gymnasium; in the higher classes, more attention is given to commercial arithmetic, &c.

Before entering the university, pupils must undergo a maturity examination. It is written and oral, and comprises Latin, Greek, German, mathematics, history, French, and physics, and for those who intend to study theology also, Hebrew. The themes for the written examination are the following: In Latin and Greek, translation of some passage of an author, which has not been read in school, and a translation from German into Latin; a German composition; mathematical problems; questions in history. Insufficiency in one of the chief branches is considered sufficient cause for denying the certificate of maturity. A committee chosen by the cantonal board of education is entrusted with these examinations, and is composed of teachers of the canton school and of the university. As there are yet in Berne progymnasia, which go as far as the lower classes in the literary gymnasium of the canton school, and as scholars from these mostly enter the third class of the canton school, a regulation was made, establishing an examination of admission, which is written and oral, and comprises Latin, Greek, mathematics, German, French, and history.

IV. THE UNIVERSITY.

The University at Berne was founded in the year 1834. It has the four departments of philosophy, theology, law, and medicine. The department of philosophy has two divisions; philosophy and history, and natural sciences and mathematics.

The professors are either ordinary or extraordinary professors, and "private professors," (*privatdocenten*.) These latter have no fixed salary, but receive generally some remuneration; the salary of an ordinary professor is 3,000 francs; extraordinary professors, the maximum of 1,600 francs. Ordinary professors, with full salary, are obliged to lecture from ten to twelve hours per week; those in the department of philosophy, twelve to fourteen hours.

All the ordinary professors form the academical council, (*akademische regenz*,) and choose every year from among their number a rector. This place can only be occupied twice in succession by the same person. The current business is attended to by a council consisting of the rector, prorector, and the deans, (*decani*.) This council annually draws up the rules and regulations, superintends the studies and discipline of the students, manages the property of the University, grants stipends to students, and superintends the collections and museum of the University.

All the extraordinary and ordinary professors of a department form a separate council, presided over by a dean, chosen annually from among the ordinary professors. These departmental councils attend to all the business falling to their province, grant academical degrees, hold examinations, &c.

There are various collections connected with the University, viz: the public library, the art collection, museum of natural history, collection of antiquities, physical and chemical apparatus, &c. For all these collections the annual sum of 12,000 francs is allowed.

The conditions of matriculation or membership are the following: completion of the eighteenth year, a certificate of maturity from some canton school or gymnasium, and paying of the lecture fees. The lectures are delivered in German, but a portion are also in French. On entering the University, every student receives a printed programme of studies, which, however, is by no means obligatory, but is merely to serve as a guide. The course of studies in the department of law is comprised in six half-yearly terms; those, however, who only prepare themselves for the office of notary, can finish their studies in three half-yearly terms. The medical course comprises nine half-yearly lectures.

For the support of the widows and orphans of professors, there is an academical widows' and orphans' fund, supported by the fees of the winter lectures, regular contributions of members, entrance fees, legacies, government contributions, &c. Every teacher at the University may become a member by paying a regular contribution of twenty francs per annum. Members who leave the University do not lose their claims on the fund,

if they continue to pay their contributions. The pension of a professor's widow is not to exceed 1,000 francs, and in case she marries again, she loses her claim to the pension. Every orphan, as long as in a state of minority, receives the fourth part of a widow's pension.

Statistics of Schools and Attendance.

The number of primary schools, their teachers and scholars, is the following:

Year.	Schools.	Male Teachers.	Female Teachers.	Scholars.	Average Number.
1859,	1,379	1,276	201	87,691	63
1860,	1,395	1,076	313	86,102	61
1861,	1,412	1,070	338	85,263	60
1862,	86,005	60
1863,	1,445	1,054	386	86,621	56
1866,	1,514	1,079	428	89,249	58

A laudable degree of zeal has been manifested for the building of suitable school-houses. During the years 1856 to 1865, the government, for this purpose, paid a subsidy of 199,400 francs to one hundred and fifty associations or parishes, whilst the actual expenses for building amounted to 1,750,000 francs. As regards attendance at school, the report of 1854 says that in the better schools 70 to 95 per cent. of the children legally obliged to attend school, attended in reality; in other schools there were only 40 to 60 per cent., and in some 20 to 30, and even less. In 1866, there were in the "Oberland," on an average, 88 per cent. of the children attending school; the maximum was 97, and the minimum 69 per cent; in summer the average was 80 per cent. Cases of punishment on account of irregular attendance, 1,411. In the central part of the Canton it is very difficult to obtain a regular attendance during the summer months. In the Jura district, the attendance during winter was, on an average, 85 per cent.; in summer, 72 per cent.

The number of secondary schools in 1866, was 33, including 3 progymnasia, at Thun, Burgdorf, and Biel. At the 30 real-schools there were 84 teachers, and at the 3 progymnasia, 26. The number of scholars in 1865, was 259 in the progymnasia, and 1,757 in 28 real-schools, of whom 734 were girls. In 1866, there were at the progymnasia, 261 pupils, 56 in the literary, and 205 in real-science; and in the real-schools 1,966, of whom 891 were girls. In the French part of the Canton there are two progymnasia and two real-schools, whose statistics show an aggregate attendance of 200 pupils, under 16 teachers. The canton-school at Berne had, in 1865, 575 pupils, viz: 210 in the elementary school, 175 in the literary gymnasium, and 190 in the real-gymnasium. The French canton-school at Porrentruy had 82 pupils, viz: 37 in the literary gymnasium, and 45 in the real-gymnasium.

The University was attended during the summer term of 1866, by 214 students, and during the winter term, 1866-67, by 252. Of these last-mentioned, 136 were from Canton Berne, 70 from other parts of Switzerland, and 14 foreigners. The department of medicine numbered 96 students;

the law department, 60; the department of theology, 28; the department of philosophy, 53; the department of veterinary surgery, 15.

Other educational establishments in Berne are: the repetition courses for primary female teachers; repetition courses for secondary school teachers. There are two deaf and dumb institutions, one for boys at Friesenberg, and one for girls at Berne. There were, (1866,) 125 private schools, viz: forty-three infant schools; five factory schools, and seventy-seven other small private schools.

A very beneficial activity has been displayed by the "school-synod," consisting of delegates chosen by all the teachers, with the exception of the University. The teachers of every *amtsbezirk*, (administrative district,) choose from ten members one delegate to the synod for one year. The synod assembles once a year, and discusses educational questions, mostly such as are recommended by the board of education, (*erziehungs direction*,) and make recommendations.

School Excursions.

A peculiar feature or institution in the Berne system, are the annual school journeys, which are made by the seven higher classes of the canton-school. Out of every division of the school, four "journey companies," (*reise sectionen*,) are formed; the first company (section) travels twelve to fourteen days; the second, six; the third, two; the fourth, one day. For these journeys, an annual sum of 3,000 francs is allowed. The plan of the journey is to be submitted to the canton-school committee for their approbation, and the teachers have afterwards to hand in a summary report of their journey.

Through the kindness of Mr. Hitz, Swiss Consul-general at Washington, we are in possession of a very interesting volume entitled, "A TRAVERS LE JURA."

Fourth annual journey made by the Industrial Schools of Neuchatel, La Chaux-de-Fonds, and Le Locle, in the Cantons Neuchatel, Berne, Soleure, and the Department of the Doubs (France), July 7-12, 1867.

This is a folio volume of 64 lithographed pages, with 66 spirited pen and ink sketches representing scenery and incidents of a pedestrian excursion by pupils of the schools named. It is got up entirely by the pupils themselves, under the superintendence of some of the professors. The company numbered, all in all, 130, the students in military uniform, preceded by a band of music. A staff had been organized, composed of a master of arrangements, a treasurer, a quartermaster, some draughtsmen, and a chronicler. A humorous description of each one of the company is given, and the account of the journey itself is also held in a very humorous and sprightly style, taking note of all subjects of interest, both as regards natural history, industry, and historical recollections. The journey lasted six days. On the first day the company crossed the romantic Jura mountains, by way of La Chaux-de-Fonds, and in the evening reached Maison Monsieur on the banks of the river Doubs, which here forms the boundary between France and Switzerland. The second day they followed the course of the river Doubs, crossed into France, and halted for the night at the little town of Indevillers. On the third day the Doubs was crossed a second time,

and Porrentrui, in the Swiss Canton of Berne, reached in the evening. From here, the route which had hitherto been in a northerly direction, made a sharp turn to the southeast, and Delémont formed the night's quarters of the fourth day. In the evening of the fifth day Soleure was reached by way of the Weisentein, famous for its magnificent panorama of the whole range of the Bernese Alps. The sixth day was occupied with visiting the museum and other places of interest in Soleure, and a railroad-ride of a few short hours brought the excursionists back to their homes at Neuchatel. The admirably got up volume, recording the journey with its daily incidents and results, transports the reader to the forest-clad mountains and romantic valleys of that beautiful region of the Jura as yet comparatively little visited by the swarm of tourists, and no doubt forms a precious memento to all participants in the excursion, reminding them, even after many years, of the bright days of youth, and of the faithful companions of their foot-tour among the mountains.

Burgdorf—Hofwyl.

The Canton of Berne will always be interesting to the student of educational history, as the scene, in part, of the labors of three remarkable men—John Henry Pestalozzi, Emanuel de Fellenberg, and Jacob Vherli, or Wehrli.

At Burgdorf, Pestalozzi, in 1801, commenced the preparation of a work which he published in 1802, with the title, "How Gertrude teaches her children," which, with the "Evening hour of a Hermit," and "Leonard and Gertrude," has revolutionized the whole aim and method of elementary education. Here, too, he began his second experiment in school-teaching, which was continued at Buchsee, and finally consummated at Yverdon (*Vaud*)—and which, with all its failures in discipline and short comings as compared with his own ideal, did form a normal school, not only of ideas, but of school-men, who afterwards scattered the good seed of rational discipline and methods over Switzerland and Germany, and indirectly, although not often acknowledged, over Great Britain and the United States.

At Hofwyl, Emanuel de Fellenberg systematized the ideas which Pestalozzi originated, and demonstrated the practicability of developing all the faculties of our nature, physical, intellectual, and moral, into one harmonious whole, for the rich as well as the poor, and gave still further prominence to the education of teachers, and to another fundamental idea of Pestalozzi, the importance of personal labor and physical training, in the work of education.

At Maykirch, a farm-colony of Hofwyl, Jacob Wehrli demonstrated, by associating and living with young outcasts, as their friend as well as teacher, by training them to the use of tools in the workshop and on the farm, the possibility of making the industrial element an important feature of rural schools, and an indispensable one in reformatory institutions. The same principles were carried out by him as director of a normal school for country teachers at Krutzlingen, in the Canton of Thurgovia, in which all the pupils were occupied a portion of the day in agricultural labor.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN FRIBOURG.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

FRIBOURG was originally inhabited by the ancient Helvetians, and on account of its sterility was but little visited by the Romans. Gradually the Alemanni and Burgundians settled here. In the year 1032, it became part of the German empire, and was ruled by the dukes of Zähringen, who in 1179 built the city of Fribourg. In 1481 Fribourg joined the Swiss confederation. This Canton has always been distinguished for its strong catholic tendencies, and since 1581 has been the strong-hold of the Jesuits in Switzerland. It was one of the first to join the confederation of the seceding Cantons, (*Sängerbund*), in 1847. In the year 1853, another insurrection was raised in Fribourg, but it was soon overcome by the federal authorities. The present revised constitution dates from the year 1857. The Canton has four representatives in the National Council. In 1863 it had a population of 105,970, on a territory of 563 square miles. Of this number, 90,352 were catholics, and 15,578 protestants.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

This Canton has always been a strong-hold of catholicism; the Jesuits founded a college in the city of Fribourg in the 16th century; and all educational matters were in their hands, while the administration of civil affairs was exercised by a few old families who lived in luxury; the mass of the people were poor and ignorant. The French revolution wrought some temporary alleviation; but after the revolution, the aristocracy and the clergy again got the ascendancy, and the few reforms in educational matters that had been introduced by the Franciscan Friar Girard, were soon abolished.

The law of 1825 decreed that religion should form the chief subject of instruction, and no text-books were allowed that had not received the sanction of the catholic bishop. From 1831 to 1837 the liberal party were in power, and introduced various school reforms; but in 1837 the government again passed into the hands of the ultra-reactionary party, who evinced no sympathy in the advancement of common schools. In 1847, after the secession movement, and Fribourg was occupied by the federal troops, the Jesuits were expelled, and new and liberal school laws were introduced by the Great Council. There was again a period of reaction in 1856–58, and a counter revolution in 1860, since which time there have been some marked improvements in the schools.

The school law in force dates from the year 1848. The highest authority is the "board of education," subordinate to the government council, (*staats rath*,) and has the supervision of all primary, secondary, and higher schools, public and private. Next in authority to the cantonal board of education, is the permanent committee on studies, (*studien commission*,) who examine the programmes of all the public schools, fix the text-books, and conduct the examinations of the candidates for teaching both primary and secondary schools. It consists of the rector and two professors of the cantonal schools, and three other members (not teachers), of which one must be a district-school inspector. All the members are chosen for three years. They meet once in two weeks, and receive a remuneration of two francs for every day they are in session.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The superintendence of the primary schools is intrusted to the overseers, (*oberamtmann*,) the school inspectors, the parish councils, and the local school boards. The overseers are obliged to visit the schools of their district at least once in every year, and submit a report. The pastor of the place and the local authorities are to accompany them on these visits. The parish councils and the school inspectors' committee, (of two to five members,) manage all the internal and external affairs of the school. The whole Canton is divided into school-districts, with a school inspector in each; these are to draw attention to everything which may be thought advisable for the education in their district; they are obliged to inspect all the primary schools in their respective districts at least twice a year. They are chosen for six years, and have a salary of 2,500 francs per annum, besides two francs for every school they inspect. The secondary schools are managed by a committee composed of three members.

In every village there is a public primary school for both sexes; but villages with less than 200 inhabitants may unite with one of the neighboring villages and have a school in common. No teacher can have more than 70 pupils, nor less than 12; if there are more than 70, an assistant must be engaged, and a new class organized. If a school has more than 140 scholars, pupils are separated according to sex, into three or four classes, and the girls' classes are taught by female teachers.

The course of instruction includes: religion, Bible history, reading, writing, arithmetic, orthography, singing, linear drawing, history of Switzerland, history and constitution of the Canton, geography, especially that of Switzerland, elements of book-keeping and surveying, natural history, with regard to agriculture and trades. The three subjects last named are obligatory only on the highest classes. The girls are instructed in needle-work. Instruction is given (one half-day in the week excepted) for $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the morning, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the afternoon, with an annual vacation of 12 weeks. Children are obliged to attend school regularly from the age of seven to fifteen.

To become a primary school teacher, a person must have completed the eighteenth year of his age, and show a certificate of qualification, which is given only to those who have attended the normal school, and passed a satisfactory examination. No certificates are given for any period longer than four years, and these are only given to such as have been teachers for two years. Certificates for an unlimited period of time are only given to teachers who have served ten years, and have in their first examination maintained the first character. The teachers are chosen by the village or town authorities, for two years, provisionally; if then they have proved satisfactory, they are confirmed by the board of education. The maximum number of hours a week which a teacher is obliged to teach, is 32, and the minimum 25.

The minimum salary is 400 francs; that of a provisional teacher, 300 francs. The salary is never to be higher than 1,000 francs; all the teachers are to be supplied with a decent house and garden, and two cords of wood. The widow and orphans of a teacher who died in office draw his salary for at least three months after the death, but the provisional teacher is paid some compensation at their expense. In every borough there is to be a school-fund, which is in no case to be less than 8,000 francs. If villages are too poor to maintain their school, they receive some help from the government, which every year appropriates 25,000 francs for this purpose.

In continuation of the primary, are the so-called "secondary" schools, intended to prepare young men for industrial pursuits, or the higher classical studies. There may be but one such school in each district. The subjects of instruction are: religion, history of the Old and New Testament, French, German, calligraphy, mathematics, arithmetic, geometry, surveying, history and constitution of Switzerland, geography of Switzerland, general geography, elements of physics, book-keeping, singing, and gymnastics. The course lasts two years, and no one is admitted who has not completed the twelfth year of his age. Instruction is imparted gratis. There are two teachers, and if Latin is taught, three; one of the teachers acts as principal of the school. The minimum salary is 600 francs, besides, in all cases, house, garden, and fuel. There is also a girls' secondary school, for which the government has provided a school-house, and gives an annual contribution of 2,500 francs. The course lasts two years, and three for those who intend to become teachers.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The secondary schools consist of the college and the lyceum, and connected with these, a progymnasium, called "*école préparatoire*," (preparatory school.) The subjects of instruction in the two years' course are: religion, Latin, French, and German, elements of mathematics, Bible history, history of Switzerland, geography, calligraphy, drawing, singing, and gymnastics.

The college is divided into a literary, and a scientific or industrial section, the first with two subdivisions, one French, and one German.

The course of instruction in the literary section, in which French is used as the language of instruction, is the following:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion,	2	2	2	1	1	1
French,	7	5	5	6	7	7
Latin,	10	9	7	7	7	7
German,	3	3	3	3	3	3
Greek,	—	3	5	5	5	5
History,	2	2	2	2	3	3
Geography,	1	1	1	1	—	—
Arithmetic,	2	2	2	—	—	—
Mathematics,	—	—	—	2	2	2
Book-keeping,	—	—	1	1	—	—
Calligraphy,	1	1	—	—	—	—

The scientific section, having four classes, is intended to prepare young men for higher technical studies, or for practical life. Great attention is paid to mathematics, whilst the natural sciences are not as fully treated.

The course of instruction is the following:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Religion,	2	2	2	2
French, -	7	7	5	5
German, -	5	5	4	3
Mathematics,	7	7	9	9
History, -	2	2	2	—
Geography, -	3	2	—	—
Book-keeping,	—	2	2	—
Mechanics, -	—	—	—	3
Natural History,	—	—	—	2
Physics, -	—	—	2	2
Chemistry, -	—	—	2	2
Geometrical Drawing, -	—	2	3	3
Freehand Drawing, -	2	2	1	2
Practical Geometry, -	—	—	—	10
Calligraphy, -	3	—	—	—

For pupils of both sections, instruction is given besides, in technical drawing English, Italian, singing, and gymnastics, all of which are optional subjects.

The lyceum has two classes, each of which occupies two years. During the first year, are taught: philosophy (10 hours a week), including psychology, logic, ontology, cosmology, history of philosophy, and ethics; mathematics (4 hours); astronomy (1 hour); geology (1 hour); historical criticism (1 hour); French, Latin, Greek, and German literature (each 1 hour); Hebrew (1½ hour).

During the second year, are taught: physics and chemistry (together 9 hours); philosophy, (psychology, theodicee); mathematics, in common with the scholars of the fourth class of the industrial section; Hebrew (1 hour), in common with the students of the first year; history of philosophy, ethics, French, Latin, Greek, and German literature.

There is also connected with the institution, a law course of two years, in which the following subjects are taught: natural law, civil law, Roman law, criminal law, federal laws, cantonal laws, laws of administration, history of general principles of law, ecclesiastical law, and if time and the

proficiency of the student will permit, political economy, commercial law, and medical jurisprudence.

III. SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

There is a normal school at Hauterive, chiefly intended to educate teachers for the country districts; but those are also admitted, who, after having gone through some primary school, wish to complete their education, as likewise those whose native language is German, and who wish to acquire a knowledge of the French.

The course of instruction includes: religion, French, calligraphy, geography, history of Switzerland, arithmetic, elements of geometry, surveying, elements of natural science, book-keeping, pedagogics, agriculture, and linear drawing. Students who intend to become teachers give instruction in the preparatory course, under the supervision of a teacher. The course of instruction lasts two years.

There is held, from time to time, in connection with the school, a repetition or review course, for primary school-teachers, usually lasting six weeks. The school-fee for candidates for teachers' places, is 20 francs per month; for other students, if natives of the Canton, 30 francs; if not natives, 35 francs.

There is also a Canton school, the faculty of which consists of professors and assistant teachers. They are chosen by the government council, on the suggestion of the board of education. The salaries of teachers at the college and progymnasium, range from 1,000 to 1,500 francs; at the lyceum, from 1,200 to 2,000 francs; assistant teachers, 300 to 800 francs. At the head of the whole institution there is a rector, (rector of the academy.) The college and progymnasium are under the superintendence of a director. In order to be admitted into the lowest class of the progymnasium, a boy must have completed the twelfth year of his age, and show a satisfactory knowledge of all the subjects taught in the primary schools. There are stipends for poor students of 50 to 150 francs, which are given by the board of education on the recommendation of the teachers' conference. Stipends are also given to talented youths, who wish to study at some university or polytechnic school, and there is for such purposes an annual appropriation made, of 8,000 francs.

Statistics.

In 1867 there were 316 primary schools, (253 French, 63 German,) attended by 15,429 scholars, (7,893 boys, 7,536 girls,) under 234 male, and 71 female teachers.

Of the secondary schools of the Canton, the most numerous attendance was at the "*école secondaire du Lac*," (mostly Germans) 88 scholars. At the female "*école secondaire*" in the city of Fribourg, there were only 32 scholars.

At the college, there were 278 students—9 in the "*école préparatoire*," 53 in the industrial section, 125 in the French division of the literary

section, 46 in the German division of the literary section, 27 in the lyceum, 18 in the law-school.

In the year 1866, the Cantonal government expended for primary schools, the sum of 14,595 francs. The income from property belonging to the college amounted in 1866, to 86,113 francs. The income from the *boarding-house*, (*pension*,) connected with the college, was 28,164 francs; total income, 114,277 francs. The following were the expenses: administration, 32,065 francs; instruction, 52,429 francs; pension (*boarding-house*), 24,856 francs. Total, 109,350 francs.

The recent school history of this Canton exhibits evidence of extreme fanatical views in both the liberal and the clerical party, when in power. Until the war of 1847–8, the government was in the hands of the clerical party. The issue of the secession struggle passed the administration of affairs into the hands of the liberals, when it was provided that no religious society should be allowed to teach, and that persons thereafter educated by the Jesuits, or by any of the orders affiliated to the Jesuits, should be incapable of holding any office in church or state. It made public instruction obligatory and gratuitous. It forbid the education of any child at home, or in any private school, unless approved by the school inspector and communal school committee. Every pupil of a private school must attend the half-yearly examinations of the communal school, and on failure to do so, or to pass satisfactorily, the school must be closed. The object of the primary school was decided to be “the development of man’s moral and intellectual faculties in conformity with the principles of christianity and democracy.”

In 1856, a change of political parties brought the clerical party into power, and in 1858 the new Council of State relaxed the obligations of attendance at public schools, gave parents liberty to educate their children at home or in private schools, made the clergyman a necessary member of the local school committee, and reduced the programme of primary instruction to the lowest minimum—“reading, writing, and cyphering.”

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN GENEVA.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

GENEVA, at the time of the wars between the Romans and the ancient Helvetians, belonged to the country of the Allobroges, and Cæsar then occupied the city of that name as a fortress. At the downfall of the Roman empire, it became part of Burgundy; was then ruled for some time by the Goths, and came under the jurisdiction of the Franks in 536. During the fifth century, Geneva became the seat of a bishop, and under the emperors, was ruled by hereditary counts. To strengthen itself in the frequent wars which the Dukes of Savoy waged against it, Geneva, in 1526, concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with Berne and Fribourg. The doctrines of the reformation found entrance into Geneva about 1532, chiefly through the zealous efforts of Calvin. In 1798, Geneva was forced to join the French republic, and in 1815, was formally received into the Swiss confederation as the twenty-second Canton. The present constitution dates from 1847. The population, in 1860, on an area of 915 square miles, was 83,340, of which 70,266 were protestants, and 13,074 catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The present school law dates from 1848. All public schools are under the superintendence of the government council. There are two inspectors for the primary schools; the immediate supervision of each primary school is in the hands of the municipal council.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The government council fixes the number of schools for each community, and decides whether they are to be sub-divided or not. In connection with the primary schools, there may be infant schools and evening schools. By special permission from the authorities, a town may also establish a "middle class school," (*école moyenne*), in connection with the primary schools. In this case the government also contributes towards its expenses. It is the duty of the parish to build school-houses and keep them in repair; but the government supplies the apparatus and text-books. The subjects of instruction are the same as in Vaud, only that here the elements of agriculture are taught in the country schools. The age for entering school is six; no child is legally obliged to attend school. The scholastic year commences July 1st, and the first term ends December 31; the second term commences January 1st, and lasts till the 30th of June. There are five school days in each week, and six hours each day. The number of classes is six; instruction is imparted gratis.

The teacher must pass a satisfactory examination before a committee of teachers in all the subjects taught in the primary schools, and at the special desire of the municipality of the town for which he is a candidate, in history, elements of natural sciences, singing, and drawing. Teachers receive a fixed salary, and an increase, (*casuel*), in consideration of special success in securing attendance.

The salary in Geneva is 1,400 francs; in Carouge, 1,200 francs; in the other towns, 1,000 francs. Female teachers in Geneva and Carouge receive 900; in the other towns, 700 francs. The increase (*casuel*) varies with the number of scholars; 30 centimes monthly for every child up to fifty children; 20 centimes for every child beyond this number. Assistant male teachers receive 700 francs; assistant female teachers, 600 francs. The fixed salaries are paid partly by the government, and partly by the inhabitants; the latter can only be obliged to pay one-fourth, and at most, one-half. The increase is paid altogether by the government. Each village or town where there is a school, must provide a suitable house with a garden for the teacher.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The secondary schools consists of the Industrial and Commercial College, the Industrial School, the Classical College, the College at Carouge, and a Secondary School for Girls.

1. The Industrial and Commercial College at Geneva, (*Collège Industriel and Commercial*), has six classes. Students are admitted on examination. On leaving school, every scholar receives a certificate, and those who have passed satisfactorily a special examination, conducted by a jury of professors, a *certificat du capacité*. The salary for ordinary teachers is (at 24 hours a week,) 2,500 francs; special teachers receive, for each weekly hour, 100 francs. All the teachers get a share of the school-fees, which amount to twenty francs for the sixth class, and 10 francs for every higher class. The course of instruction includes: French, German, English, history, geography, cosmography, arithmetic, elements of algebra, geometry, calligraphy, and drawing. Optional subjects are singing and gymnastics.

2. The Industrial School, (*Ecole Industrielle*), is a continuation of the college just mentioned. The course lasts three years, and the lectures are held mornings and evenings, to afford an opportunity of attending them to young men who are already engaged in some business or trade. The course of instruction embraces: elements of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, descriptive geometry, mechanics, physics, chemistry, natural history, elements of political economy, linear and machine drawing. The scholars are either "ordinary" or "external" scholars. The former are obliged to attend all the lectures, whilst the latter choose their own subjects. Ordinary scholars must pass an examination at the end of every year, before they are permitted to enter the next class. The tuition fee for this school, which has a very large attendance, is from five to ten francs. The age re-

quisite for admittance, for ordinary scholars, 14; for external scholars, 15. The salaries of the professors vary from five to six francs per hour.

3. The Classical College, (*Collège Classique*), has seven classes, of which the seventh is a preparatory course. The subjects of instruction in the seventh class are: French, grammar, arithmetic, rudiments of Latin. The other six classes are divided into the three higher and three lower classes. The course of instruction in the latter embraces Latin, French, modern geography, elements of history, German, and arithmetic; and in the former, Latin, Greek, French, German, ancient history, ancient geography, arithmetic, elementary mathematics, geometrical drawing. For every class there is a head-master, (*maitre regent*), and besides, there are special teachers of mathematics, German, Italian, English, geography, linear drawing, music, and gymnastica. The school-fee is 12 francs for the seventh class; 20 for the sixth; 32 for the fifth; 44 for the fourth; 56 for the third; 68 for the second; and for the first, 80 francs.

4. Connected with the classical college, is the "*gymnasium*," with two classes. Whilst only "ordinary" scholars are admitted at the latter, the gymnasium also allows "external" scholars. Every scholar, on leaving, must pass an examination, and receives a certificate. There are three regular professors, and some of the professors of the academy also give lessons. The course of instruction in the lower class includes: Greek language and literature, Latin language and literature, mathematics, (each 5 hours); rhetorics and French literature, (4 hours); history, German language and literature, (each 2 hours.) In the higher class are taught, besides the subjects already mentioned, introduction to philosophy, comprising psychology and logic, (2 hours during the first half-year,) and introduction to the natural sciences, (2 hours.) School-fee, 45 francs per half-year.

The "*Collège at Carouge*," at Geneva, has three classes, in which instruction in the classics, history, &c., is imparted.

5. The Secondary School for Girls, at Geneva, one of the best girls' schools in Switzerland, has the following course of instruction:

CLASSES.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
French,	8	7	7	9	9	6
Literature,	-	-	-	2	4	4
History,	1	2	2	2	2	2
Mythology,	-	-	-	-	-	1
Geography,	2	3	3	3	2	2
Phys. Geog. and Cosmography,	-	-	-	-	-	2
Arithmetic,	2	2	2	2	2	1
Book-keeping,	-	-	-	-	-	1
Physics,	-	-	-	-	1	1
Natural History,	-	-	-	-	-	2
Drawing,	1	1	1	1	1	1
Singing,	2	2	2	2	2	2
Calligraphy,	1	1	1	1	2	2
Female Work,	2	2	3	3	4	3

Besides these, as optional subjects: religion, German, English, Italian, gymnastica. There were (1867-68,) eight female teachers, two assistant female teachers; ten male teachers, six assistant male teachers. The age

required for admission is nine years. The school-fee is 20 to 50 francs; 25 francs extra for each optional subject, and 10 francs for gymnastics.

III. SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

The only institution of this class is the Academy, at Geneva. It has three departments, viz :

1. Department of science and literature, in two sections. The literary section has the following course: Greek and Latin literature, archeology, French language and literature, composition, history of ancient and modern philosophy, social and moral philosophy, Hebrew. The scientific section has the following course: higher mathematics, descriptive geometry, analytical mechanics, applied mechanics, physical geography, astronomy, experimental physics, mathematics, general chemistry, mineralogy, geology, paleontology, botany, zoology, anatomy, physiology.

2. The law department has the following course: Roman law, history of law, civil law, commercial law, criminal and penal law, laws of nations, political economy.

3. Department of theology; the course of instruction embraces: Hebrew, Chaldaic, exegesis of the Old and New Testaments, biblical archeology, hermeneutics, historical and dogmatical theology, Christian morals, apologetics, and homiletics.

The salaries of "ordinary" professors depends on the number of lectures delivered. Those who give at least 120 lectures a year, receive 2,000 francs; for 120 to 160 lectures, 2,500 francs; for more than one hundred and sixty lectures, 3,000 francs; besides a distributive share in the lecture-fees.

The degrees conferred by the Academy are: The degree of *Bachelier* of Literature, Physics, Natural Sciences, mathematics; the degree of *Master of Arts*, (*maître-des-arts*); the degree of *Licentiate* of Law and Theology, the degree of *Doctor*.

Statistics.

The number of primary schools, in 1865-66, was 75, with 117 classes; the number of scholars was 5,972, (3,065 boys, and 2,907 girls.) There were 25 evening schools.

Number of scholars at the secondary girls' school, 464, (350 natives of the canton, 33 from other cantons, 81 foreigners.) Number of scholars at the Collège de Carouge, 42, (29 in the industrial, and 13 in the literary division.) Number of scholars at the industrial and commercial college 334, (221 natives of the canton, 54 from other cantons, 59 foreigners.) Number of scholars at the industrial school, 207, (105 ordinary scholars, 102 external scholars.) Number of scholars at the classical college, 335, (260 natives of the canton, 30 from other cantons, 45 foreigners.) Number of scholars at the gymnasium, 65, (43 ordinary scholars, 22 external.)

The number of students at the academy was 217, (166 in the theological department, 21 in the law department, 30 in the department of science

The total expense for educational purposes was 43,170 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN GLARIS.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

GLARIS was peopled by German settlers; it belonged for some time to Rhætia, then to Swabia, and afterwards for a long period to the Convents of Seckingen and Schannis. From the middle of the thirteenth till near the end of the fourteenth century, Glaris was under Austrian rule. In 1352, it joined the Swiss confederation, after having gained a glorious victory over the Austrians at Naefels. During the wars of the French revolution, Glaris suffered much, as for a long time it formed the theatre of the war. The present constitution dates from 1836, but was revised in 1842. In 1860, there was a population of 33,458, (27,563 protestants, and 5,866 catholics,) on a territory of 279 square miles.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

This canton has quite recently adopted a school law, after the most careful preparation. The original bill or project was first prepared by a commission of competent school men, and then submitted to the consideration of the teacher's conference, and the cantonal school board. After further consideration, it was finally adopted by the government council.

The most important provisions are the following: Children are obliged to attend school eight years, viz: six years in the elementary school, and two years in the review or repetition school—in the last, six hours per week. Children are admitted to the school when five years and six months old. During the first two years they attend school four hours a day, and the next four years, six hours a day, with a vacation of from four to six weeks in the year.

The general supervision is by a cantonal school board, appointed by the government. To this board is given the appointment of district inspectors for every district. The local management, as to buildings and other details, is assigned to a school board in every village or town, chosen by the inhabitants.

Teachers, after passing a satisfactory examination, are appointed for a period of not less than three years. Teachers of private schools must hold certificates of qualification, and their classes are inspected by the government school authorities. The course of instruction in every public school is made out by the teacher, and must be approved by the cantonal school board.

There are two grades of schools recognized by law, viz : Primary schools, and Secondary and Real-schools.

A cantonal school of the highest grade has long been contemplated, but the various misfortunes that have befallen the canton, and principally, the conflagration of the city of Glaris, where the school was located, have hitherto prevented the execution of this project, which, however, will be carried out as soon as the necessary funds are raised.

There is no teachers' seminary in the canton. After various futile attempts to conclude a regular convention, first with Appenzell, then with St. Gall, and afterwards with Thurgovia, to have aspirants for teachers' places educated in the seminary of one of these cantons, it was finally resolved, that young men from Glaris, who wish to become teachers, and who for this purpose receive a stipend from the board of education, may attend the seminary of their own choice, with the provision that the board are authorized to exclude any seminary whose course of instruction does not meet the educational wants of the canton. Thus, in the year 1866, one student from Glaris attended the seminary at Wettingen, (*Argovia*,) one the seminary at Küssnacht, (*Zurich*,) two that of Kreuzlingen, (*Thurgovia*,) one that at Mariaberg, (*St. Gall*,) and three at Schiers, (*Grisons*.)

There were, (in 1865,) twenty-two primary schools, with fifty-five teachers, and 4,021 pupils; with secondary and repetition schools, attended by 1,492 pupils, and eight real-schools, with 160 pupils.

The government makes annually a contribution of 6,000 francs for elementary schools, and of 500 to 1,000 francs for each secondary and real-school.

The whole expense to the cantonal government was 10,527 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE GRISONS.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

THE GRISONS, or *Graübunden*, country of the Grey League, was the Upper Rhetia of the ancients. After a long and sanguinary war, the Romans subjected the country to their rule. The Franks and Goths never paid much attention to these distant and secluded valleys; but, in the course of centuries, a large number of Germans settled among the original inhabitants, and in 843 the country became part of the German empire. When the imperial power began to decrease, many independent noblemen arose, besides the ancient bishopric of Chur, and the Abbey of Dissentis. The great abuse of feudal rights awakened in several valleys among the inhabitants the innate love of liberty, and for mutual defence, many united in separate little unions. The doctrines of the Reformation were introduced in 1521. In the year 1803, the Grisons joined the Swiss confederation. The present constitution dates from 1820. The actual government of the canton consists of the operation of a large number of local leagues, each resting on a larger number of petty village sovereignties, in which there is the nearest approach to universal suffrage to be found in the world. The wisest decisions of the great council of seventy members, which meets at Coire, are not unfrequently paralyzed by the opposition of a petty town meeting.

The population, in 1860, was 91,177, (52,166 protestants, and 29,003 catholics,) on an area of 2,968 square miles. A portion of the inhabitants speak an Italian dialect; a larger portion a corrupt German, and the rest, the Romansch. This language is spoken in the Upper Engadine, and the entire literature is comprised in about thirty books, which are mostly religious.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

For a long time education in this canton was entirely in the hands of the clergy; but in 1838, two cantonal boards of education, (*cantonal erziehungsrath*,) were created, one for each of the two denominations, and in 1843, a common board of education was substituted instead. The clergy violently opposed these measures at first, but had finally to submit in the year 1844.

All the schools of the canton, both public and private, with the exception of the Catholic Episcopal seminary, are under the supervision of a board of education, (*erziehungsrath*,) of five members, three of whom are protestants and two catholics. Their names are proposed by the little

council, and they are elected by the great council, for three years. The rector and vice-rector of the cantonal school may take part in the deliberations of this board, but have no vote. All matters relating to church and religion are settled by the members belonging to that church, without interference from the others. Each of the two denominational sections of the board, in their meetings, must admit to a seat and a vote, a clergyman of their respective denomination, chosen by the church authorities. Each member receives a *per diem* remuneration, and the president has a fixed salary.

The whole canton is divided into school districts, with a school inspector in each. He visits all the schools of his district, is present at the examinations, and makes an annual report to the board of education.

I. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The elementary schools are divided into summer schools, winter schools, and year schools. The winter school lasts twenty-two weeks. In those parishes which have no year school, the establishment of a repetition school is urgently recommended. Every school has three divisions; the lower school with a minimum number of twenty hours a week; the middle school and the higher schools with twenty-eight hours a week. Children are obliged to attend school from the age of seven to fifteen; only in rare cases an exception from this rule is permitted. The course of instruction includes: religion, native language, (reading, writing, composition,) and German for the Italian and Romansch scholars; arithmetic, simple book-keeping, rudiments of geometry, free-hand drawing, calligraphy, singing, geography and history of Switzerland, natural sciences with special regard to practical purposes. In giving instruction, the textbooks published by the board of education are used, and special permission is required for using other books.

Each primary school is managed by a school board of three members, of which the pastor of the place is one. This board manages the school fund, visits the school at least three times during the winter, and sees that all the rules and regulations are properly carried out.

The salary of teachers should amount to 10 francs per week; many parishes, however, fail to pay this sum. According to the latest reports of 446 teachers, 83 had less than the minimum of 10 francs per week; 188 had from 10 to 11 francs; 119 from 11 to 15 francs; 35 from 15 to 20 francs; 21 from 21 to 30 francs.

Teachers' Seminary.

There is a Teachers' Seminary at Chur. Candidates for admission must be natives of the canton, must have completed the fifteenth year of their age, and possess the knowledge required for admittance to the second year of the cantonal school. The instruction is given gratis. Every pupil who has gone through the full course at the seminary is obliged to serve as teacher for eight years, and for ten years, if he has had his board

and lodging gratis. Since 1853, there has been an average attendance of 40; in 1867, there were 70 enrolled.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Proposals have frequently been made to establish a system of secondary schools, but hitherto without any permanent result. There are several schools of this grade in different parts of the canton: the cantonal school at Chur, with 213 students,—53 in the gymnasial course, 145 in the real-school, and 17 in the Romansch division; collegium of St. Gunna, with 44 pupils in the gymnasium, and 12 in the real-school; a real-school at Schiers with 94 students, of whom 33 are normal pupils; a convent at Dissentis with 50 pupils; a superior girls' school at Chur with 43 pupils, and another at Malens with 22 pupils. There is a Roman Catholic seminary at Chur.

The cantonal school at Chur is managed by a committee of three, chosen by the board of education. The faculty consists of one rector, one vice-rector, one con-rector, several head-masters and assistant teachers, who are all chosen for six years. The salary of a head-master is 1,700 francs, and that of an assistant teacher, 1,360 francs. The former may be increased to 2,040, and the latter to 1,700, after five years' service. Every teacher is obliged to keep from twenty to twenty-eight hours per week. For every hour kept above this number, a remuneration is paid. The rector and vice-rector are chosen for three years. The rector is obliged to teach only twelve to fourteen hours a week. All the teachers are chosen by the board of education.

Statistics.

In 1860, there were in 305 parishes, 445 schools,—227 *gesamnt schuler*, [uniting all the three next-mentioned in one,] 95 higher schools, 26 middle schools, and 27 lower schools. The total number of children obliged to attend school was 14,301. The actual number in attendance, for portions of the year in 1867, was 14,240. There were 63 private schools, with 200 pupils.

The villages are not all provided with school-houses, and in about forty, the school is kept in the room of some common dwelling-house. In 268 villages in the secluded valleys of the Engadin there is only four to six months school; forty villages had school from six to nine months. There were only ten year schools.

The school income, in 1850, amounted to upwards of a million francs. The number of teachers was 452, (amongst whom, 23 female teachers, and 24 clergymen.) According to their native language, there were 186 Germans, 194 Romansch, (*Romanen*), and 61 Italians. In the Italian districts the Romansch language continually gains ground. Only 230 teachers had certificates of qualification.

The salary of the teachers varied from 100 to 1,200 francs; 156 had a dwelling-house provided; 153 free fuel; 2 got some land; 12 food and

clothing ; and 15 took their meals in turns with the farmers of the village in regular rotation, (*wandeltisch*.) The government gives every teacher who has a certificate, 20 to 60 francs in addition. Two years since, a widows' and orphans' fund was commenced. On an average there are thirty-two pupils to every teacher. The great majority of teachers are obliged to find some outside employment for a living, mostly farming ; 14 were forest-keepers, (*jörster*) ; 25 officers in the civil service ; 12 mechanics of various kinds. There were 100 female industrial schools. The salary of teachers at these schools ranges from 10 to 600 francs. In the teachers' seminary, there were 41 students in 1864, and 58 in 1867 ; and since 1853, 80 teachers have been educated at this institution.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN LUCERNE.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

ACCORDING to an old tradition, the name *Lucerne* is derived from a lighthouse (*lucerna*), which the Romans had built here. After various changes, Lucerne came under Austrian rule, but joined the three original Swiss Cantons in 1332. Lucerne has always been a stronghold of the Jesuits in Switzerland, and was one of the first of the seceding Cantons in 1847. The chief actions of the short war that followed, were fought on the territory of Lucerne, in November, 1847. The confederates were soon defeated, Lucerne occupied, and the federal authority restored. The Jesuits were forced by law to leave the Canton. The present constitution dates from 1841. The area of Lucerne is 587 geographical square miles, with a population in 1860, of 130,965, of whom 128,248 were catholics, and 1,618 were protestants.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Even as late as the end of the last century, very few towns or villages of this Canton had schools deserving the name. Instruction was chiefly given in private schools by itinerating schoolmasters, during the winter months, and was confined to reading and writing. In the year 1798 the government decreed that a school should be established in every parish. This met with much opposition, but the measure was again enforced by a law of 1804. In 1812, there were 147 elementary schools. In 1830 the school laws were revised; and in 1833, repetition schools were established. All of these measures were violently opposed by the catholic clergy and the Jesuits, whose influence was strong in this Canton. In 1848 and the following year, the control of all educational matters was given to the secular authorities, and the rules and regulations now in force date from that time. The general supervision is confided to a Board of Education, (*erzhungsrath*), consisting of seven members, (five laymen and two clergymen.) They are chosen by the great council, (*grosse rath*), for three years. It is divided into two separate committees, (of three members each,) viz: the committee on elementary education, (*volks schul direction*), and the committee on higher education, (*studien direction*.)

There is one Cantonal school inspector, who is chosen by the great council for four years. It is his duty to inspect all the schools of the Canton, at least once every two years, and make an annual report. The whole Canton is divided into nineteen school-districts, with a school-board

of three members in each,, chosen by the government council, (*regierungs-rath*,) for four years. The financial affairs of each school are managed by the parish council, (*gemeinderath*,) and their accounts, after having been examined by the district school-board, are sent to the board of education. The pastor of the village has charge of the religious instruction, and makes an annual report on the religious and moral standing of the scholars, to the school-board. For the superintendence of instruction in music, gymnastics, and military drill, special committees are appointed.

Under the jurisdiction of the committee on elementary education, (*volks schul direction*,) there are the following schools: elementary schools, district schools, the teachers' seminary, and the school for the deaf and dumb.

I. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

All children are obliged to attend school from the sixth to the sixteenth year of their age, and even then no one is allowed to leave the school who cannot prove a satisfactory knowledge of all the subjects taught. The expenses of the primary schools are borne partly by the government, partly by the parishes. There are no school-fees, but every father is obliged to buy books and stationery for his children. The school-fund is increased by legacies, and the fees paid by every one who becomes a citizen of the Canton, (amounting to 100 francs in each case,) &c.

The elementary school is divided into the summer school for children from the age of six to nine, and the winter school for children from the age of nine to thirteen, and the repetition school from thirteen to sixteen. Girls do not attend the repetition school, but the working school. The number of hours per week is 25 in the summer school, 30 in the winter school; and in the repetition school, two half-days every week in winter, and one half-day in summer. The course of instruction includes: religion, writing, reading, arithmetic, surveying (*messen*), drawing, singing, and in the higher classes, the elements of natural history, history, and geography; and for the girls, female work.

District Schools.

These schools are intended to continue and increase the knowledge gained at the elementary schools, and to prepare the scholars for practical life, as well as for a higher industrial and scientific education. The subjects of instruction are: religion, German, and if possible, French; arithmetic, book-keeping, surveying; natural sciences, with special regard to agriculture and industry; geography and history, laws and constitution of Switzerland, calligraphy, singing, and drawing. In the district schools of the first grade, Latin is also taught. They are equal to the lower classes of the gymnasium, have three courses and two teachers. The district schools of the second grade, have, as a general rule, only two classes. The number of hours per week is 30. The government council determines the number of district schools, as well as their location; the village where

it is located must provide a school-house, and give the teacher two cords of wood; also provide fuel for the school-room. The whole district provides the teacher's house, and the school-apparatus, &c. The salary of the teacher is paid by the government.

For girls, there are working schools, which are established either by the parishes or private individuals; the government only pays an annual contribution of 20 to 50 francs. The number of hours per week is 6, and the salary of the female teachers amounts to 100 francs. The course of instruction lasts two years. The so-called repetition and working schools, with a two years' course, also give instruction in the subjects commonly taught in repetition schools. The teacher, who must possess a certificate of eligibility, receives a salary of 150 francs, of which sum the government pays 80.

An entirely independent organization, are the boys' schools in the city of Lucerne. These schools combine the elementary and district school.

Teachers' Seminary.

The teacher's seminary of the Canton is located at Radhausen. It has a three years' course. No class can number more than twenty students. Candidates for admission must have completed the sixteenth year of their age, and must have gone through at least a two years' course at a district school. The course of instruction embraces: religion, pedagogics, practical exercises in school-keeping, German, mathematics, natural sciences with special regard to agriculture and forest-culture, history and geography, laws and constitution of Switzerland, calligraphy, drawing, and music; piano and organ are optional. There is one director, two head-masters and two assistant teachers. One of the head-masters is to be an ordained clergyman. He gives the instruction in religion, and, in conjunction with the director, watches over the conduct and morals of the students. The students live and board in the seminary; the finances are managed by one of the teachers, who keeps the accounts. Domestic and garden work is done by the students themselves. Candidates for teachers' places must undergo an examination in the various subjects taught at the elementary and district schools. The minimum salary of teachers is 250 francs for a winter and summer school; 150 for a winter school, and 100 francs for a summer school; and in addition, house, garden, and two cords of wood. If the number of scholars in the summer school exceeds 40, and in the winter school 60, the salary is increased from 20 to 120 francs. A further increase is made after several years' service. The salary of a teacher at a district school is 720 francs, and in some cases, from 800 to 1,200.

There are in this Canton, as in other portions of Switzerland, district and cantonal conferences, for the general discussion of educational subjects. In the city of Lucerne there is a pedagogical association embracing teachers, parents, and friends of educational improvement generally, whose purpose is to establish closer relations between the school and the home.

II. SECONDARY AND SUPERIOR SCHOOLS.

Since the 16th century, all establishments for superior education were in the hands of the Jesuits. They opened their first high school in 1578. The state gradually acquired more and more control over this school, reorganized it in 1771, and placed it under the supervision of a school-board. The school again underwent various changes during the time of the French revolution, and a polytechnic institute was added to the lyceum in 1830. In 1841, the state took the school entirely into its hands and changed the secondary branch into a cantonal school. The school suffered much, and was for some time closed altogether, during the reign of the Jesuits, from 1844 to 1847, and the war of the confederacy in 1847. In January, 1848, it was reopened, and the present organization dates from that period. It now consists of a real-school, gymnasium, lyceum, and theological department.

The Real-school or department takes up the course of instruction where it was left off in the seventh class boys' school in the city of Lucerne, and the district schools. It consists of four classes. In the two lower classes, all the subjects, with the exception of Italian, are obligatory. In the two higher classes, the study of the English language is optional, but is urgently recommended to those students, who, on leaving school, wish to pursue mercantile business. The course of instruction is as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Religion, - - -	4	4	4	4
German, - - -	5	4	3	2
French, - - -	5	4	3	2
Italian, - - -	-	3	3	3
English, - - -	-	-	3	3
Mathematics, - - -	8	10	12	15
History, - - -	2	2	2	-
Geography, - - -	2	2	2	-
Statistics, - - -	-	-	2	-
Natural Sciences, - - -	3	2½	3	3-6
Book-keeping, - - -	-	2	-	-
Commercial knowledge, - - -	-	-	11	11
Drawing, - - -	6	2	2	2

The gymnasium has six classes; connected with it is a lyceum of two classes. The course of instruction in the gymnasium is as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion, - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
Latin, - - -	11	10	8	8	7	7
German, - - -	5	4	4	4	4	4
Greek, - - -	-	-	5	6	5	5
French, - - -	-	4	3	3	3	3
History, - - -	2	2	4	2	2	3
Geography, - - -	3	3		-	-	-
Mathematics, - - -	8	3	3	3	3	3
Natural History, - - -	-	-	-	-	3	3

The so-called "extended district school" at Munster, is in reality a pro-gymnasium with real classes. It consists of four classes. Conditions of admission are, the completion of the eleventh year of age, and proficiency in the primary classes.

The course of instruction at the lyceum, is as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.
Religion, - - -	2	2
Philosophy, - - -	4	3
Mathematics, - - -	5	-
Physics, - - -	-	6
Chemistry, - - -	-	1st half-yr., 2; 2d half-yr., 3.
History, - - -	5	5
Natural History, - - -	3	-
Philology, - - -	8	8
German, - - -	2	2

Connected with the gymnasium, there is a three years' course for theologians. The course of instruction includes: cyclopedia and apologetics, dogmatics, church history, exegesis, Hebrew, moral and pastoral theology, ecclesiastical laws, and pedagogics. Optional subjects are Italian and English. During recitation hours, teachers and pupils must use the language taught during the hour, (be it French, English, German, or any other language.) At the end of the lyceum course, maturity-examinations are held. The written part of the examination consists in writing a composition in Latin on some philological subject, and answering questions in German, on mathematics, natural sciences, and philosophy.

Statistics in 1866.

There were 444 elementary schools, with 18,782 scholars, and 251 teachers; 84 repetition schools, with 1,016 scholars; 83 working schools, with 2,531 (female) scholars; 22 district schools, with 671 scholars. In the teacher's seminary, there are 45 pupils; in the institution for deaf mutes, 29. The annual expenditures of the government for elementary schools, was 139,000 francs.

In the real school there were 99 pupils; in the gymnasium and lyceum, 125 pupils; and in the theological course, 19 pupils—an aggregate of 223 pupils, towards whose education the government appropriated 90,600 francs.

The liberal party in the Canton, which at the election in 1867 gained a decided victory, contemplate several sweeping changes in the whole educational system of the Canton. A plan has already been drawn up, but we are not informed as to the details. Judging by extracts from a pamphlet of Dr. Segassar, a member of the cantonal government, entitled "*Thoughts on the revised Law of Education*," and by a summary of the reply made by the Council of Education, from which body the revised school code emanated, the new system is based on the most advanced doctrines and practice of public instruction. In this controversy Dr. Segassar has been beaten in the popular vote.

We are indebted to a friend, who has made himself familiar with educational movements in Switzerland, for the following brief statement of the principal points made by Dr. Segassar, and other participants in the discussion:

Dr. Segesser objects to the title, "Law of education." He would call it simply "School-law," for education is not the business of the State, but of the family. He considers it one of the mistakes of modern times, that in the education of children the State officials assume the place of parents, whereby the home is made subordinate to the school. The State should provide the means, but education itself is the business of the family. The duty of a democratic State in the department of public instruction embraces only the popular school, or school of the people. The administrative centralization of the popular school-affairs in our times is a pernicious anomaly. The popular school can prosper only when intimately connected with the commune. True education has not been promoted by all the splendid programmes and plans of instruction by State officials. He proposes a reduction of the subjects and grades of instruction. Children should not attend school before they have passed their seventh year. The duration of attendance should depend on attainments. Compulsory attendance on school is unrepugnant. The District-school should fulfill the objects of a Higher school of the commune, and should be complete in itself, and not be preparatory to any Higher Institute. For the latter purpose, Middle-schools should be erected in different parts of the country.

The State must give up exclusive teachers' seminaries and organizations. An experienced teacher should give at each of the Middle-schools a semi-annual course on the art of teaching, for the benefit of such scholars as have received certificates of ability for the teachers' vocation. In the place of the exclusive teacher-conferences, separated according to classes, he proposes associations of teachers, parents and school officers, for free discussion of educational topics. Thus the school-affairs of the canton would become popular; commune, church and family would interest themselves in them; the whole complicated organization would be simplified, the expenses of the State would be reduced at least one-half, and the schools would become more lively and effective.

Opposed to the position of Dr. Segesser, that education is not the business of the State, the Council of Education assert that "the modern school is not intended merely for learning, but is essentially an institute of education. Education and instruction should not be separated, and the best means of education is instruction." In conclusion, the Council add: "We can not recommend that the school should be deprived of its character as an institute of education; that the duty of the State be confined to popular schools, or schools of the people; that all Middle-schools should be dispensed with; that the communes should unconditionally fix the salaries of teachers; that the pecuniary assistance of the State to the school-treasury should be proportioned to the number of children; that the teachers' Seminary, as an independent Institute for the education of teachers, should be done away with; that singing and drawing should be excluded from the plan of instruction; that State coöperation should be refused in religious instruction; that the female Work-schools should be abolished; that the number of teachers in the Institute of the deaf and dumb and in the Canton-school should be diminished. On the other hand, we hold firmly to doctrines and practices entirely different. We would make the public school good enough for all classes of the community, and would secure for them the best teachers. We are, however, in favor of fixing a later age for entering school, and, under certain conditions, of yielding the right of election of the teachers to the communes."

Dr. Segesser has been vigorously answered by seminary-director Dr. Dula, who is opposed to "economizing and stinting in matters of public instruction. Nowhere is money better invested than in providing for the mental culture of youth. In the exact measure that the instruction of youth is extended, promoted, and elevated, does the domestic, social, and moral development and elevation of the people advance." While Dr. Segesser calls for a reduction, Dr. Dula favors prudent progress, amplification, and elevation of the popular school. This will give, without doubt, the main thought and ground-lines for future reforms.

In consequence of his zealous opposition to the proposed school reforms, Dr. Segesser lost all his influence in educational affairs. The progressives gained the victory, and will now work for the introduction of year-schools, an extension of public instruction, the elevation of the position of the teachers, a higher minimum of salaries, and the election of the teachers by the communes.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN NEUCHATEL.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

NEUCHATEL formerly belonged to the empire of Arelat, (*Burgundy*), and had counts of its own. In the year 1033 the emperor Conrad II. of Germany took possession, and incorporated it in the German empire. In 1288 Rudolph I. gave it as a fief to John of Chalons, in whose family it remained for several centuries. By the peace of Westphalia, 1648, its independence of the German empire, and at the same time its connection, already existing in fact, with the Swiss confederation, was acknowledged. In 1707 the house of Chalons, which had never ceased to claim Neuchatel, became extinct, and a tribunal chosen from among the estates (*landstände*) of Neuchatel, decided in favor of Frederick I., king of Prussia, as the nearest relative and rightful heir. Since that time Neuchatel belonged to Prussia, but at the same time maintained its connection with the Swiss Cantons. In 1815 it formally joined the Swiss confederation as the twenty-first Canton. In the year 1852 the royalists, under the leadership of Count Pourtales, raised an insurrection against the Swiss authorities, which was soon quelled. The negotiations between Switzerland and Prussia on this subject, led to no result, and a war was on the point of breaking out in 1856, which, however, was avoided by the interference of France, when Prussia resigned all her claims to Neuchatel, and this anomalous state of affairs came to an end. The present constitution dates from 1858. In 1860 there was a population of 87,847, (77,476 protestant, and 9,359 catholic,) on an area of 280 square miles.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The present system of public instruction rests on the law of 1848. The general superintendence of the schools belongs to the government council, which appoints a board of education, to whom the appointment of local committees is given.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

In villages where there are at least forty children from the age of seven to sixteen, a school must be maintained throughout the year. If there are more than fifty children, it must be divided into two or more classes, according to their age; and if there are more than two classes, according to sex. In the winter and summer schools, instruction must be given for at least five months. All children living in the Canton, (native and foreign,) who have completed the seventh year of their age, must attend school; instruc-

tion is given gratis. Each primary school has two degrees of instruction; in the lower or elementary division the following subjects are taught: French, writing, linear drawing, arithmetic, elements of geography, special geography of Switzerland, elements of Swiss history, singing; in the higher division are taught, besides the subjects just mentioned, geometry, surveying, general geography, elements of mathematical geography, general history, constitution of Switzerland and the Canton of Neuchâtel, duties and privileges of a citizen, and drawing, besides female work for girls. In addition to these branches, the elements of natural science, agriculture, physics, gymnastics, if desired, are taught. Special hours are assigned to the religious instruction. The number of school-hours per week is not less than 28, nor more than 34. Children are obliged to attend school till their sixteenth year; those, however, who have attended a year-school, and in an examination have shown a satisfactory knowledge of the obligatory subjects of study, may leave school at the age of fourteen. Pupils of private schools must likewise pass an examination, and if this does not prove satisfactory they must attend a public school.

The expenses of the primary schools are met partly by the government, and partly by the parishes and local school funds. The annual cantonal appropriation is 30,000 francs.

A committee, presided over by a member of the Board of Education or the Government Council, is charged with the examination of candidates for teachers' places. The committee consists of six members. The examination includes: pedagogics, French, mathematics (arithmetic, geometry, and book-keeping), general history, and history of Switzerland, astronomy, Swiss constitution, history, drawing, singing, female-work for female teachers. An acquaintance with the school-laws, religion, and Holy Scriptures, is likewise demanded. Certificates of qualification of the first, second, and third degree are issued. Candidates who only possess a certificate of the third degree, must, after two years, again subject themselves to an examination, and are only allowed to teach at winter and summer schools. The salaries of the teachers vary according to the number of hours they teach, from 1,000 to 2,000 francs, and 800 to 1,300 francs for female teachers. The male teachers at half-year schools receive 300 to 400 francs, and the female teachers 200 to 300.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Industrial schools, (*écoles industrielles*), are intended to prepare pupils for practical life. The subjects of instruction are: French language and literature, German or English, political and commercial geography, cosmography, history, constitution of Switzerland and Neuchâtel, mathematics (arithmetic, elementary mathematics, geometry, trigonometry, practical geometry, statistics, dynamics, mechanics), book-keeping, physics, chemistry, geology, mineralogy, zoology, botany, drawing applied to arts and industry, vocal music, gymnastics. Condition of admittance: thorough knowledge of the subjects taught in the primary schools. At the end of the

course pupils receive a "study certificate," (*certificat d'études*.) These schools are maintained by the inhabitants themselves, but the government gives some pecuniary aid, not exceeding 5,000 francs. Candidates for teachers' places must pass an examination and receive a certificate of qualification.

At the *collège municipal* at Neuchâtel, there are lectures for young girls on French literature, history, French language, mathematics, natural history, pedagogics, domestic economy, cosmography, geography, church history, German, English, drawing, and singing. Scholars may make their own selection of the subjects they wish to study.

The *Academy* was organized by a law of May 25th, 1865. It is intended to prepare young men for the university or the polytechnic school, and is composed of the following institutions: an upper literary gymnasium, a pedagogical section, a department of literature, a department of sciences, and a department of law.

The upper gymnasium has a two years' course, in which the subjects of instruction are: Latin, Greek, rhetorics, French composition, German, general history, history of Switzerland, Swiss constitution, geography, mathematics, elements of physics and natural science, introduction to philosophy, and drawing. Only those are admitted who can show a "*certificat d'études*" from the municipal college at Neuchâtel, or who pass an examination on these studies. At the end of every half-year, as likewise at the end of the whole course, there are examinations, which if satisfactorily passed confers the degree of *Bachelier-des-lettres*, and gives the right to enter the department of literature.

The scientific division of the gymnasium has also a two years' course, and the subjects of instruction are: French literature, elements of philosophy, German, English, mathematics, elements of physics and chemistry, botany, zoology, general history, history of Switzerland, geography, drawing. Candidates for admission must either have completed their studies at some industrial school, or pass an examination of admission. On leaving they must pass another examination, by which if satisfactory they get the degree of *Bachelier-des-sciences*, which entitles students to enter the department of sciences.

The pedagogical section is intended to educate teachers for the primary schools. The course of instruction lasts two years, and includes: French language and literature, history and geography, elementary mathematics, pedagogics, linear and free-hand drawing, singing, elements of natural sciences, gymnastics, book-keeping, and a practical course at some primary school. At the end of the course students must pass an examination to obtain the certificate of qualification to teach.

The department of literature embraces: Latin language and literature, Greek language and literature, French literature, German literature, history, archeology, philosophy, political economy, and statistics.

The scientific department includes: higher mathematics, mechanics, astronomy, physical geography, general and experimental physics, chemis-

try applied to industry and agriculture, mineralogy, geology, paleontology, physiology, anatomy.

In the law department the following subjects are taught: Swiss laws, laws of Neuchâtel, private law of Neuchâtel, commercial law, criminal and penal laws. The professors nominated by the government council, (*staats-rath*), are either "ordinary" or "extraordinary." The "ordinary" professors are appointed for six years. The students are likewise either "ordinary" or "extraordinary"; the former are obliged to attend all the lectures, whilst the latter can make their own selection.

Statistics.

In 1866 there were 303 primary schools, of which 79 were boys' schools, 81 girls' schools, 122 mixed schools, and 21 infant schools, with 136 male teachers, and 161 female teachers; and in all 16,605 scholars.

Total expenses for primary schools, 326,378 francs, of which the government pays 102,378 francs.

There were four industrial schools, with 348 scholars including 200 girls. Total expense of all these schools, 77,905 francs.

Scholars in the gymnasium, 200, (140 ordinary and 60 extraordinary.)

The entire expense of public instruction to the government in 1866, was 430,142 francs, or about 32 francs for each pupil.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SCHAFFHAUSEN.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

SCHAFFHAUSEN was already known in the times of Charlemagne by the name of Scaffhuson. In course of time, Schaffhausen became a free city in the German Empire, but the Emperor Ludwig, the Bavarian, greatly limited its privileges, by pawning it to the Dukes of Austria in 1330. They ruled Schaffhausen till the year 1415, when the Emperor Sigismund restored its privileges. In 1501, Schaffhausen joined the Swiss confederation. The present constitution dates from 1852. In 1860, on an area of 119 square miles, it had a population of 35,646 inhabitants, of whom 33,489 were protestants, and 2,080 were catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

By article ten of the constitution of 1830, the elementary education of all the children of the canton is made the sacred duty of citizens, and the government, both local and general.

By the school law, last revised in 1860, every village and town has its own school board, consisting of five or ten members, chosen by the inhabitants, except in the city of Schaffhausen, where the board is constituted by the town council. This board determines on the studies, books, qualifications, and examination of teachers, and submits annually a report on all matters concerning the schools to the school inspector.

All the villages and towns of the canton are divided into three school districts, with a school inspector in each, who has a salary of 430 francs. He has the general supervision of all public and private schools in the district, to inspect them several times a year, and to see to it that the prescribed course of studies and the discipline are properly carried out; he is authorized to reprimand the school board, if neglectful of their duty. All the school inspectors meet once a year in conference, to exchange their experiences made during the year, and to make a report on the result of their deliberations to the cantonal board of education.

The supervision of the gymnasium is entrusted to two "Ephori," who have similar duties as the school inspectors.

The board of education, (*erziehungs rath*), also called "cantonal school board," consists of seven members, of whom one must also be a member of the little council, (*kleine rath*), and one a clergyman; two must be teachers, (one from an elementary school, and one from some higher school.) They are chosen by the great council, (*grosse rath*.) The general superintendence of education in the whole canton is confided to this

board. It is the highest court of appeal in all educational matters; only as regards financial questions, its resolutions must be sanctioned by the little council. The members receive a remuneration of two francs for every sitting, and traveling expenses. The president and secretary receive four francs for each sitting, besides an annual salary of 230 francs.

The schools of the canton are divided into communal schools, (*gemeinde-schulen*), and cantonal schools. The former include the elementary schools; the latter the real-schools and the gymnasium.

Communal Schools.

These schools are divided into the common every day school, and the school of repetition, (*fortbildung schule*.) Boys are obliged to attend school till the seventeenth year of their age; girls till their confirmation. Boys must be eight years in the every day school, and three years in the school of repetition. Unexcused absence from school is severely punished. Every town or village is obliged to maintain an elementary and repetition school. Several villages may have one school in common, if too poor to maintain one by themselves. The elementary schools have either one, two, or more classes; elementary schools with one class only, must not have more than sixty pupils; elementary schools with several classes, not more than eighty pupils in one class. The every day schools are each divided into three divisions; the first comprising the first two years, the second the following three years, and the third the last three years.

The minimum number of hours per week during the first five years is thirty in winter, and twenty in summer. A day's session does not exceed four hours during the first year, and five during the second year. The maximum number of hours per week is never to exceed thirty-three.

The course of instruction is the following :

	1st, 2d year.		3d, 4th, 5th year.		6th, 7th, 8th year.	
	Winter.	Summer.	Winter.	Summer.	Winter.	Summer.
Bible History,	4	3-4	3	2-3	3	2-3
Reading,	{ 14½ to 17½ }	{ 13 to 14½ }	7	4½-5½	5	3-4
German,			8-9	5	6-7	4-5
Writing,			5½	3-4	3-4	2
Arithmetic,	4-5	3-4	6½	4-5	5-6	4-5
Singing,	1½	1-1½	2	1½	2	2
Drawing,	—	—	—	—	2	1
Geography,	—	—	—	—	2	2
History,	—	—	—	—	2	
	24-28	20-24	33-30	20-24	30-33	20-24

The repetition school is intended to preserve and increase the knowledge gained in the elementary school, and to cultivate those branches which require a more mature understanding. Every child on leaving the common day school is obliged to attend the repetition school during three successive winters. The sexes are separated in this school. As soon as a class numbers fifty scholars, it is to be subdivided into two divisions. At the repetition school for boys the following subjects are studied: German, reading, orthography and composition, (especially business composi-

tion,) arithmetic, book-keeping, geography, history, constitution and laws of Switzerland, natural sciences, agriculture, and industry. In the repetition school for girls, instruction is limited to German, arithmetic, some general useful knowledge, horticulture, and singing.

Only those can become teachers in the elementary and real-schools who are members of some Christian church. Candidates have to undergo an examination by a special examination committee. The members of this committee are chosen by the board of education, receive a remuneration of four francs and twenty centimes, and have their traveling expenses refunded. The examination is divided into three parts, viz: written, oral, and practical. Special attention is to be paid, not only to the mere knowledge of a subject, but to the way in which it is rendered. The written examination embraces the following subjects: Bible history, German language, arithmetic, methodics, calligraphy, and drawing. Teachers of real-schools have the following subjects in addition: French, algebra, geometry, and natural science. The marks are: 4 for "excellent," 3 for "good," 2 for "middling," 1 for "poor," 0 for "very defective."

Real-Schools.

The course of studies in the real-schools embraces: religion, German, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, history, natural sciences, French, drawing, (free-hand and geometrical,) writing, and singing. To these subjects, which are obligatory, the following optional ones may be added: Latin and English. The real-schools have either one, two, or three classes. There is no teachers' seminary in the canton, but the government grants stipends to talented young men to enable them to study at a seminary in some other canton. Those who wish to obtain this privilege must have passed the seventeenth year of their age, and must undergo a maturity examination, which extends to all the obligatory subjects taught in the real-school. By a law of April 7th, 1851, provision was made for the education of teachers for the elementary schools, especially the lower classes, by letting candidates study two years longer at the real-school, and then, after a satisfactory examination, enter upon their duties.

The salaries of teachers, according to the law of 1864, are the following (in francs): In schools of

	7 Classes.	6 Classes.	5 Classes.	4 Classes.	3 Classes.	2 Classes.
1st teacher,	1,400	1,300	1,200	1,100	1,050	1,050
2d "	1,200	1,100	1,000	900	900	800
3d "	1,100	1,000	900	800	750	—
4th "	1,000	900	800	700	—	—
5th "	900	800	700	—	—	—
6th "	800	700	—	—	—	—
7th "	700	—	—	—	—	—

At real-schools of only one class the salary of the teacher is 2,000 and free lodging. The salaries are, after the fourth year, gradually increased till the sixteenth year of service.

The Gymnasium.

The gymnasium at Schaffhausen originated in a Latin school of four classes, founded in the year 1575, which after many changes, was called gymnasium in 1795, and re-organized in 1805, 1827, and 1851.

It is divided into a higher and lower gymnasium, of which the lower one has again two sub-divisions, viz :

CLASSES.	HUMANISTIC DIVISION.						REALISTIC DIVISION.			
	Lower Gym.				Upper Gym.		I.	II.	III.	IV.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.				
Religion,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German,	4	3	3	3	3	2-3	4	3	3	3
Latin,	6	6	6	6	6	6	-	-	-	-
Greek,	-	6	6	6	6	6	-	-	-	-
French,	4	3	3	3	2	2	5	4	3	3
English,	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	2	3	3
Mathematics,	4	3-4	3	3	2	2	6	6	7-8	7-8
History,	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2
Geography,	2	2	2	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
Natural History,	3	3	2	4	2	2	3	3	6	6
Drawing,	2	2	2	2	2	-	4	3	3	2
Hebrew,	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-
Public Laws,	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Introduction to Philosophy,	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-

Conditions of admission to the gymnasium are: thirteen years of age, satisfactory proofs of having acquired a thorough knowledge of the subjects taught in the first two classes of the real-school. The examination embraces: German, Latin, French, geography, history, arithmetic, &c. The school-fees at the lower gymnasium amount to 34, and at the higher one to 42 francs per annum. There are some stipends for poor children.

At the head of the gymnasium there is a director. The teachers have the title "professor." The salary is, at the higher gymnasium, for one hour a week, 95 to 130 francs; at the lower gymnasium, 75 to 110 francs; the writing, drawing, and singing-masters, as well as the teacher of gymnastics, receive 55 to 75 francs for the weekly hour. The director is obliged to teach eighteen hours a week, and receives a salary of 3,200 francs.

In order to give private instruction, the permission of the board of education is required, and the branches which are to form the subject of instruction must be named. Persons wishing to give private instruction, must either produce a certificate of possessing the required knowledge, or undergo an examination. In every private school an examination is to be held by the cantonal school authorities at least once a year, and if the results of this examination are entirely unsatisfactory, the school is broken up.

Statistics.

In the 105 elementary schools, there were 5,740 pupils; in the 6 real-schools, 439 pupils; and in the gymnasium, 112 scholars.

The government expenses for education amounted to 102,095 francs. Of these, 39,845 for the gymnasium; 34,696 for real-schools; 29,938 for elementary schools; 600 for stipends, besides 6,000 for the school authorities.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SCHWYTZ.

HISTORY—POPULATION—AREA.

SCHWYTZ is one of the three original Cantons of Switzerland. It is doubtful when or by whom it was settled. The inhabitants are however of Germanic or Scandinavian origin, and in the year 1210 we find that Schwytz with the other two Forest Cantons, formed part of the German empire under special rule of Rudolph of Hapsburg. His successor, Albert II., deprived the people of Schwytz of many of their liberties. In order to resist him, Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwald, formed the celebrated treaty of the Rütli in 1307, and after a sanguinary war achieved complete independence of the Austrian rule. In 1847 it joined the seceding Cantons. The present constitution dates from 1848. In 1860 there were 45,193 inhabitants, (on an area of 338 square miles,) of whom 44,649 were catholics, and 539 were protestants.

The present school organization dates from the year 1848. The highest authority under the Government Council is a Board of Education, which is intrusted with the general supervision of all educational matters. This board consists of six lay members and three clergymen, elected for four years. It is divided into two sections of four members each, one for the primary school, the other for the cantonal school. There is one cantonal school inspector, who may attend the sittings of the board of education, but has no vote. He has to inspect all the schools of the Canton and submit an annual report. The district school boards, composed of three or five members, superintend the schools in their several districts. In every village or town the municipal council appoints a school board, consisting of the pastor of the place and three or five members. The teacher may be admitted to their deliberations, but is not entitled to vote.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

All the primary schools are divided into six school-districts, which are again sub-divided into as many circles (*kreise*) as there are parishes, and in these there are to be as many local schools as the board of education deems desirable. In the higher classes the sexes are separated, and special boys' and girls' classes are to be established. The course of instruction in the primary schools includes: religion, learning by heart of pieces of prose and poetry, reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, history and geography of Switzerland, drawing, singing, female work for girls. The same subjects, only on a little more extensive plan, are taught in the repetition school.

The primary schools have generally six classes, with 30 hours a week. Children are obliged to attend school from the sixth year of their age. The religious instruction is imparted by the pastor of the village. Primary school teachers, before they can get a place, must obtain a certificate of qualification. The certificate is generally good for four to six years, but can easily be prolonged without another examination. Candidates for a certificate must be catholics. A special committee is charged with the examination of the primary school teachers. This committee meets every year in September. The examination is written and oral: the written examination comprises: pedagogics, composition, and arithmetic; the oral examination, all the subjects taught at the primary schools. In every parish there is a school-fund, continually increased by legacies, free contributions, fines, by the contributions (8 to 24 francs) of every newly-married couple. All the primary school teachers assemble twice a year in conferences, for which purpose the Canton is divided into four districts. At these meetings essays are read by the teachers and then criticised by the directors of the teachers' seminary; and questions referring to the principles and methods of education and to school management, are discussed.

There is a teachers' seminary at Seaven, conducted on the same plan as that of the other Cantons. Pupils are admitted only after completing their fifteenth year, and passing an examination in the studies of the primary schools. The course of professional instruction lasts two years.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The course of instruction at the secondary schools includes: religion, grammar, arithmetic, surveying, book-keeping, general and Swiss history, general geography natural sciences with special regard to agriculture and industry, singing, and finally as optional subjects, French and Italian. The apparatus and books are supplied by the board of education.

Cantonal School. The college at Maria Hilf takes the place of a cantonal school, consisting of a preparatory course, a real school, a gymnasium, and a lyceum or philosophical course.

Statistics.

The number of primary schools in 1866, was 38, with 3,364 scholars (1,615 boys and 1,749 girls); and 42 male and 22 female teachers.

There were 4 secondary schools, with 94 scholars (91 boys and 3 girls); 38 repetition schools, with 2,923 scholars (1,051 boys and 1,072 girls); and one college, with 303 pupils, (68 in the preparatory course, 75 in the real school, 147 in the gymnasium, and 13 in the lyceum.)

In the teachers' seminary there were 28 students.

The aggregate expenditure for education in 1866, amounted to 19,971 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SOLEURE.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

SOLEURE was at an early date occupied by the Romans, during the middle ages was one of the principal cities of the Duchy of Burgundy, afterwards belonged to the German empire, but always enjoyed great liberty, and joined the Swiss confederation in the year 1481. At first the protestant reformation gained ground, but in 1531 the larger portion of the population became catholic. During the war of the seceding Cantons, Soleure remained faithful to the federal authorities. The present constitution dates from 1841, and was revised in 1851. In 1861, on an area of 254 square miles, there was a population of 69,527, of whom 59,799 were catholics, and 9,626 protestants.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The highest authority in educational matters is the Government Council, (*Regierungsrath*,) while the immediate superintendence is entrusted to a Board of Education. This body convokes every year the head-masters and district school inspectors to a conference. Every electoral district forms also a school-district, for which a school committee consisting of at least five members, viz: the inspectors of the district and two or three other members, is appointed by the council, of whom one at least must be a teacher. This committee has the general care of school matters in a district, while the government council appoints one (or more) inspectors for every district, who holds office for two years. These are to inspect all the schools in their district as often as possible, to hold the examinations, to superintend the school committees, draw the attention of teachers to deficiencies in their way of teaching, &c., and to make an annual report to the board of education. There is a local school committee for every borough school, (*gemeinde schule*,) consisting of three to five members, chosen by the borough council, and the clergymen of the place is *ex-officio* a member of this committee, but teachers can only be advisory members. This committee arrange the lessons, regulate the vacation, provide the proper apparatus and books, attend the examination, and settle all differences between the teacher and the parents.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Every town and village in which there are forty children must have a primary school, and by special permission or direction of the government, one may be established in neighborhoods where there are fewer children.

In villages where there is no school, the government decides to which of the neighboring villages the children are to be sent to school.

The primary schools are divided into lower, middle, and higher classes. The summer term commences for the lower and middle classes on the 1st of May, and lasts till the 15th of September; the winter term commences on the 1st of January and lasts till the 15th of April. The higher class commences the first of May and lasts till harvest-time, and again from the 15th of November till the 1st of April. The number of school-hours per week in the lower school, is 18 in summer and 30 in winter; in the middle school, 12 in summer and 30 in winter; and in the higher school, 6 in summer and 30 in winter. By special decree of the village school board the number of hours in the higher school may be increased to 12 in summer.

Children are obliged to attend school from the age of seven for eight years; in exceptional cases the last school-year may be dispensed with. Girls, during the last year only, are obliged to attend the industrial school. Absence from school is visited by penalties; the first time by reprimanding the parents or guardians, the second time by imposing a fine, which in continued cases of absence may be raised to 20 francs.

The subjects of instruction are: religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, history, and geography of Switzerland, and if possible drawing. The religious instruction is imparted by the clergyman of the village. As soon as the number of scholars exceeds eighty, another teacher must be engaged.

Teachers' Seminary.

There is a Seminary at Soleure with a three year's course, which embraces: religion (catholic and protestant), pedagogics, German, arithmetic, geometry, geography and history (particularly of Switzerland), book-keeping, calligraphy, drawing, singing, rudiments of natural sciences with special regard to agriculture. The primary school of the place serves as a model for the students of the seminary. The general superintendence is in the hands of a director, who is chosen for five years; the professors and teachers of the Canton school assist in giving instruction. Candidates for admission must have first completed the age of 16, be in good health, and must undergo an examination. In 1866, out of 27 applicants only 10 were successful. The first admittance is only provisional, and after ten or twelve weeks candidates have to undergo another examination, which definitely decides whether they are to be admitted or not. At the end of every course there is a rigorous examination, and such of the students as pass it successfully become candidates for teachers' places. Every candidate for a permanent position is obliged to serve as teacher for six years. If deemed desirable a teacher may be obliged to attend a revision course, which is held from time to time in the seminary.

The teachers are elected by the parish; candidates must prove that they have successfully passed the final examination at the seminary, and must show a testimonial as to good morals and character. Those who have

already taught must likewise undergo an examination, and prove that they have satisfactorily taught for two years. The female teachers for the industrial schools are also chosen by the parish, and must produce a certificate from the government council of having successfully passed the examination required for such a place.

The salaries of candidates or provisional teachers, is 480 francs for 40 scholars, and 500 francs for 40 to 70 scholars, and 530 francs for more than 70. The salaries of regular teachers vary from 520 to 570 francs, and are paid quarterly; if not paid within a month from the time it is due, the interest on it must be paid to the teacher at the rate of four per cent. Every teacher is entitled to a decent dwelling-house, garden, barn, and stable. The government pays the following contributions: for every regular teacher 120 francs; for every candidate 80 francs; for the female teachers in the working schools a maximum of 60 francs. In favor of those teachers who pay an annual sum of 15 francs to the Cantonal savings bank, the government grants half the sum paid to the bank.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The district schools are intended to continue and supplement the knowledge gained at the primary schools. The course of instruction includes: German, French, composition, arithmetic, geometry, book-keeping, geography, history, constitution of Switzerland, natural sciences with special regard to agriculture and industry, singing, drawing, and calligraphy. The minimum salary of the teachers is 800 francs, a dwelling-house, and two cords of wood. The government pays an annual contribution which must not exceed 1,000 francs, to every district school; scholars enter after having completed the twelfth year of their age.

The Cantonal school at Soleure consists of a gymnasium, a lyceum, an industrial school, and a theological seminary. The gymnasium and lyceum prepare scholars for the university; the industrial school for the polytechnic academy at Zurich.

The gymnasium is divided into a higher and a lower gymnasium, the latter having four classes, the former two; the lyceum has also two classes. The course of instruction at the lower gymnasium embraces: religion, German, Latin, Greek, French, arithmetic, mathematics, geography, history, natural sciences. The same subjects are also taught in the higher gymnasium and the lyceum, and in addition, physics, chemistry, and philosophy. Optional subjects are, in the lower classes, free-hand drawing, singing, and music; in the higher classes, English, Italian, and Hebrew.

The industrial school has five classes, the three lower ones being called the lower industrial school, the two higher ones the higher industrial school. Obligatory subjects in the lower industrial school are: religion, German, French, mathematics, book-keeping, geography, history, natural history, physics, free-hand and technical drawing, and modeling; optional subjects are singing and music.

In the higher industrial school the following subjects are obligatory: religion, German, French; whilst the following are optional: Italian, English, mathematics, book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, physics, chemistry, mechanics, history, natural history, technical drawing, and modeling.

The theological seminary in a two years' course prepares students for the ministry. The course of instruction includes: Greek, Latin, Hebrew, patristics, cyclopedia of theology, dogmatics, exegesis, moral and pastoral theology, church law and history, and pedagogica. The last study is to prepare clergymen for school administration.

The number of teachers at the Cantonal school is the following: for theology and religion, four professors; ancient and modern languages, five professors; geography, history, natural sciences, mathematics, physics, chemistry, mechanics, technology, philosophy, six professors. Besides these there is one special professor for the first class of the gymnasium, one professor of modern languages, one professor of German and French, one professor of mathematics for the lower industrial school, and at this same school there are three teachers of music, singing, drawing, and gymnastics. No professor is obliged to devote more than 24 hours a week to his work; they are elected for six years.

The condition of admission to the Cantonal school are, a thorough examination and an annual fee of five francs for the library and museum; every scholar is obliged to undergo a maturity-examination, which is held by a committee of seven of the professors specially chosen for that purpose.

Statistics.

The number of primary schools in 1866 was 181, with 9,549 scholars; the working schools were attended by 4,295 girls. Sunday and evening schools were held in 65 parishes.

There were (in 1866) 8 district schools with 250 scholars. The Cantonal school was attended by 224 scholars, (of whom 199 were natives of the Canton.) Of these there were 94 in the industrial school, 125 in the gymnasium and lyceum, and 5 in the theological seminary. In connection with the school there is a boarding-house, which is generally frequented by the students.

In the Teachers' Seminary there were 30 students, supported in part by the parishes to which they belong.

The salaries of the teachers have been raised of late; for female teachers from 1,100 and 1,200 to 1,200 and 1,300 francs; teachers from 1,300 and 1,450 to 1,500 and 1,600 francs, besides five cords of wood and a gradual increase to the amount of 200 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ST. GALL.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

THE town of St. Gall owes its origin to the hermit St. Gallus, a Scotchman and disciple of Columbanus, who towards the end of the sixth century preached in Bregenz and the neighborhood, but who in the beginning of the seventh century, retired to the wilderness of the Sentis mountains. On his humble cell, his disciples founded a monastery, which became rich and famous through its learned men, such as Notker, Eckhard, and others. Gradually nearly the whole of the present canton of St. Gall became the property of this monastery, and the sovereign abbots, who had been raised to the rank of princes of the German empire by the Emperor Philipp, in 1204, occupy a powerful and influential position. In the year 1451, the four Swiss cantons, Zurich, Lucerne, Schwyz, and Glaris, formed an alliance. The town of St. Gall, which, with its dependencies, had preserved some sort of independence from the abbots, concluded a similar alliance in 1454. In 1529, the doctrines of the reformation were enthusiastically received by the inhabitants of St. Gall, and the abbot was forced to fly. He returned, however, and the next two centuries were filled with the never-ending quarrels between the abbots and the majority of the inhabitants. After various changes, St. Gall was established as a separate canton in 1803. The present constitution dates from the year 1831. In 1860, there were 181,091 inhabitants, (111,087 catholics, and 69,812 protestants,) on an area of 74,759 square miles.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

At the beginning of the present century, all educational matters were under the supervision of the board of health and education, which in the full sense of the word, was entrusted with the care of the bodily and mental health of the population. It was composed of both protestant and catholic members, who discussed religious questions in separate committees composed exclusively of members belonging to each denomination respectively, whilst all other matters formed subjects for general discussion. This continued down to 1814.

In 1815, the convent at St. Gallen was secularized; part of its property was entrusted to a committee composed of catholics for the catholic educational institutions of the canton. This committee did nothing for education, but merely tried to increase this property. An attempt to establish a school common to both denominations failed, and in 1818, a higher catholic institution of learning was founded, whilst an attempt to start a similar one for the protestant population of the canton, proved unsuccessful.

The constitution of the year 1814 divided the great council,—the highest authority of the canton,—into two separate councils, one catholic, and the other protestant, presided over by a grand bailiff (*land amman*,) or overseer of each party. Each council had the absolute control over the educational establishments of its own religion. The cantonal government promised an annual subsidy of 2,000 francs to each of these councils, and the existing educational funds were equally divided. The educational council hitherto in common was dissolved; the catholic council of administration, consisting of fifteen members, undertook the superintendence of the catholic educational establishments, whilst the supervision of all the protestant schools was placed in the hands of a protestant council, composed of five members. This arrangement did not prove favorable to the schools or the country at large; and in the convention of 1830, when the constitution was revised, the organization of the schools was up for discussion. One party violently demanded the maintenance of the existing order of things, while the other urged the complete separation of educational matters from the church and its influences, and the transference of the highest school authority to the state government. Unfortunately the church party prevailed, and all that could be obtained, was a new law of January 26th, 1832, by which the two denominational councils of education were subjected to the supervision of the state authorities.

The catholic council was henceforth to consist of seven and the protestant one of nine members, and it was a good omen that among the members of the catholic council there were men of liberal views, like Henne, Hungerbühler, and Weder. The first-named especially tried to disseminate his more liberal views, and influence people in that direction, by the publication of a periodical called *Der Gärtner*, (The Gardener; General Swiss Journal for Church and School.)

A higher catholic school, called "the canton school," was organized in 1834, whilst an effort to establish a protestant canton school and teachers' seminary, together with the protestant part of Thurgau, was not successful. The appropriation for the primary schools was raised from 100,000 francs to 250,000 francs, and a new law was promulgated on the principle of making primary education obligatory, and at the same time free. Unfortunately this reformatory zeal did not last long, for the ultra catholic party succeeded in creating a violent opposition to all these new measures among the catholic population of the canton, which was materially strengthened by the circumstance, that with these reforms was associated higher taxation.

The plan of founding a common higher institution of learning was again taken up in the year 1838. The institution was to comprise a teachers' seminary, an industrial school, a gymnasium, and a lyceum. But the plan failed, the more liberal members of the councils resigned their places, some of them even leaving the canton, whilst others were driven out by force.

Even the revolutionary movements of 1848 did not exercise any de-

cisive influence on political and educational matters in St. Gallen. Finally, in June, 1855, the old constitution was thoroughly revised, and the cantonal government was entrusted with the supervision of all educational establishments, both catholic and protestant, and the employment and dismissal of teachers. The foundation of common educational establishments of a higher order, common to children of all religious confessions, was authorized, and a subsidy of 10,000 francs was provided for each denomination. In spite of the strenuous opposition of the catholic clergy, November 10th, 1856, the common canton school was opened, consisting of a gymnasium with 51 scholars, (38 catholics); a school of industry with 101 scholars, (50 catholics); and a teachers' seminary with 39 scholars, (30 catholics.) This new institution encountered violent attacks of the ultra catholic party, and there was no peace till the revision of the constitution in 1861, which at last formed a basis of reconciliation for the two parties. It guaranteed full religious liberty, assigning the purely ecclesiastical affairs of each denomination to the respective denominational authorities, and placed all educational institutions under the supervision of the secular authorities specially created for this purpose. These were:

1. The board of education, (*erziehungsrath*), consisting of eleven members, (six catholics and five protestants,) who, with the exception of the president, who must be a member of the government, are chosen from all the adult (*wahlfähig*), inhabitants of the canton. Its duties are: to select text-books for the primary and real-schools; regulate the plan of study; examine all candidates, and in certain cases, dismiss teachers; elect the district school boards, (*bezirks schulrath*), and the borough school board, (*gemeinde schulrath*), and make an annual report on the state of education in the canton to the cantonal government. The current business is transacted by an executive committee of three members.

2. The district school board,—one for every district of the canton,—consists of at least three members, and has immediate supervision of the primary and real-schools, and gives special attention to the punctual attendance of the scholars. Each member has a certain number of schools assigned to him which he is obliged to visit, and notify the whole board of everything that needs remedying. They must attend the examinations, audit all bills that are sent in by the borough committee and real committee; see that the prescribed course of studies is followed; that the proper books and apparatus are supplied and used; and superintend the finances of the schools in their district. The president receives a salary of 150 francs, and 20 francs for contingent expenses.

3. Every real-school has a special committee of three members. Every borough has a local school board, of which the resident clergymen may be chosen members. When questions referring purely to the work of the school-room are discussed, the teachers are to be admitted to the sessions of the board.

4. The inhabitants of a village or town, in which there is one or more primary schools, form a school borough, (*schulgemeinde*), and by special

permission of the board of education, several villages may unite into one *schulgemeinde*. The *schulgemeinde* meets regularly in October, and every third year in May, when the *schulrath* is elected.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The primary schools are divided into the year school; the three-quarters of a year school; the partial year school; the half-day year's school; the divided year's school; and the half-year's school.

In the year school instruction is given in all the branches all the year round, with the exception of a vacation of ten weeks. In the three-quarters of a year school instruction is given during full thirty-nine weeks. In the partial year school instruction is given in some classes only during the whole year. In half-day year schools instruction is given in all the classes all the year round, the classes being divided into two divisions, one of them only having instruction in the forenoon, and the other in the afternoon. In the divided year's school the whole school is distributed into two divisions, each receiving half a year's instruction. In the half-years schools instruction must be given during at least twenty-six weeks of the year.

The year schools are either ungraded schools, (*gesammt schulen*), or at least all the seven classes are instructed by one teacher, or graded schools, (*successiv schulen*), where each class has a special teacher, or the teacher is provided with a number of assistants. In the graded schools, with two divisions, the lower division includes the three lower classes, and the upper division the four higher classes. In schools with three divisions, the middle comprises three, and the two other, each two classes. In the divided year schools the scholars of both divisions attend the every day school (*alltag schule*), during four half-years.

The course of studies in the every day school is the following:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.
Religion and Morals, -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German Language, -	12	12	12	11	8	7	7
Arithmetic, - - -	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
Grammar, - - -	-	-	-	1	1	2	2
Writing, - - -	-	-	3	3	2	2	2
Drawing, - - -	-	-	1	2	2	2	2
Singing, - - -	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Geography, - - -	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
History, - - -	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
Natural Sciences, -	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
	18	20	24	27	27	27	27
Female work for Girls, -	-	-	-	3	3	3	3

In connection with the primary school, is the supplementary school, (*ergänzungsschule*), which in all the schools must be kept the year round. At the half-year schools, the supplementary course lasts eighteen weeks, with two half-days each.

The course of instruction at the supplementary school is the following :

CLASSES.	I.	II.
German Language,	2	2
Arithmetic and Grammar,	2	2
Natural Sciences,	1½	1½
Geography,	½	—
History,	—	½
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	6	6
Female work for Girls,	3	3

In every school borough there is an industrial school for girls, and by permission of the board of education, several boroughs may unite in maintaining one school of this class for all. Girls are obliged to attend the working school from the commencement of the fourth class till the end of the fifteenth year of their age. The time of instruction is fixed at half a day per week at the least. The number of scholars who receive instruction at the same time is fixed at thirty. The instruction comprises female work and domestic economy.

Children are obliged to attend school from their sixth year; they enter the supplementary school after they have accomplished their thirteenth year, and leave school at fifteen. The supplementary school must be attended by all children, who do not, on completing the primary course, intend to go to a real-school. Strict discipline is maintained at these schools. The teacher has to keep a complete list of the absentees, and report them every two weeks to the local school authority, who must inform the parents or guardians. If this does not secure attendance, the offending parents are summoned before the board, are there severely reprimanded, and fined from one to five francs. Further neglect involves a fine of thirty francs, or imprisonment for those who are unable to pay the fine. The fines are paid into the treasury of the school.

The teachers of the primary schools are obliged to give thirty-three hours' instruction per week, which are divided among eleven half-days of three hours each. If the teacher gives instruction in the supplementary school, his time in the common primary school is shortened two half-days. Two hours per week are devoted to religious instruction. In order to become a teacher, a certificate of eligibility must be presented. Teachers may be removed by a resolution of the school borough, (*schulgemeinde*), and teachers who, after having entered on their duties, show incompetency in any subject, can be compelled to undergo another examination.

The salaries of the primary school teachers are as follows: 800 francs at a year's school, or divided year's school, or half-day year school; 600 francs at a three-quarters of a year school; 400 francs at a half-year school; and at least 100 francs for the supplementary school. As a general rule, the borough must provide a decent dwelling-house for the teacher. Teachers are permitted to earn an addition to their salary, out of school hours, and may engage in any trade or business, with the exception of keeping a tavern.

There are several conferences which the teachers must attend, viz : special conferences, district conferences, and cantonal conferences. Staying away from any of these conferences without an excuse, involves a fine of two francs, which go to the library fund. There are annually from eight to ten special conferences, and two district conferences. At the district conferences the teachers are allowed two francs per day, and three francs if they live at the distance of more than three hours from the place of meeting. The cantonal conference meets once every two years, and the number of delegates varies according to the number of schools in the district. Districts with twenty schools or less, have three delegates; those with twenty to thirty, four; and those with a still larger number of schools, five. The delegates are allowed three francs per day from the government funds, and have their traveling expenses re-imbursed.

All the school districts are divided into eight reading circles, (*lesekreise*), with a teachers' library in each, which is managed by a committee of three, and which receives new books every year. Every teacher must contribute one or two francs annually, the government pays an annual subsidy, and something more is realized from fines and free donations.

Real-Schools.

The real-school is a continuation of the primary school, and its aim is to complete the knowledge acquired at the latter, and to prepare scholars for practical life, or for some higher institution of learning. Every real-school must have at least two classes, and the number of recitation hours can not exceed thirty-five per week. Pupils are admitted who have gone through the first six courses of the primary school in a satisfactory manner.

The course of instruction is as follows :

CLASSES.	Two Courses.		Three Courses.		
	I.	II.	I.	II.	III.
Religion, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
German, - - - -	6	5	6	5	5
French, - - - -	5	5	5-6	5	4-5
Arithmetic, - - -	4	4	4	4	3-4
Geometry, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
History, - - - -	2-3	2	2	2	2
Geography, - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Natural Sciences, -	3	3	2	3	3
Singing, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Drawing, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics, - - -	2	2	2	2	2
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	34-35	33	33-34	33	29-31

All the above-mentioned subjects are obligatory. The school-fee is not to exceed fifty francs.

Instruction in the real-schools with two courses is given by one teacher, but if there are more than thirty-five scholars, there is to be an assistant teacher, and if the number of pupils exceeds fifty, a second teacher. In

real-schools with three courses, there must be at least two teachers, and in those with four courses, three teachers.

Teachers' Seminary.

The teachers' seminary, formerly in connection with the canton school, but at present at Mariaberg, near Rorschach, consists of three courses of one year each. Candidates have to undergo an examination in religion, German, French, arithmetic, singing, drawing, and writing. Students are at first only admitted provisionally for three months, at the end of which time the teachers must decide whether they shall be admitted definitely, or be dismissed. Natives of the canton of St. Gallen receive their lodging, board, and tuition free. There is an examination at the end of every year.

The course of instruction is as follows :

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.
Pedagogics, - - - -	2	3	6
German, - - - -	6	6	5
French, - - - -	2	2	2
Arithmetic, - - - -	3	3	3
Geometry, - - - -	2	2	2
Geography, - - - -	2	2	2
History, - - - -	2	2	2
Natural sciences, - - - -	3	4	4
Drawing, - - - -	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - - -	2	2	2
Singing, - - - -	3	2	1
Choir singing, - - - -	3	3	3
Harmonics, - - - -	-	1	2
Piano and Organ, - - - -	4	3	3
Violin, - - - -	2	2	2
Gymnastics, - - - -	2	2	2
Religion, (for catholics,) - - - -	3	3	3
Religion, (for protestants,) - - - -	2	3	3

The faculty consists of one director and a number of teachers and assistant teachers. The director has the general superintendence of the seminary, the model-school, and the students' boarding-house connected therewith. He imparts instruction in every class from sixteen to eighteen hours per week, in all. The teachers have to keep a maximum of twenty-eight hours per week, and form, under the presidency of the director, the teachers' conference, which assembles every month, and must be attended by all the teachers.

The seminary is under the supervision of the board of education, (*erziehungs-rath*), which fixes the course of instruction, decides in questions of dismissal of pupils, and makes all necessary regulations, &c.

In connection with the seminary, there is a model-school, whose teacher is chosen by the board of education. The students at the seminary have opportunities for engaging in agricultural pursuits, partly to get a knowledge of agriculture, and partly for out-door exercise.

At the seminary there are also review courses for teachers, extending four to six weeks, the number of teachers being limited to thirty-two to one course.

There are several conferences which the teachers must attend, viz: special conferences, district conferences, and cantonal conferences. Staying away from any of these conferences without an excuse, involves a fine of two francs, which go to the library fund. There are annually from eight to ten special conferences, and two district conferences. At the district conferences the teachers are allowed two francs per day, and three francs if they live at the distance of more than three hours from the place of meeting. The cantonal conference meets once every two years, and the number of delegates varies according to the number of schools in the district. Districts with twenty schools or less, have three delegates; those with twenty to thirty, four; and those with a still larger number of schools, five. The delegates are allowed three francs per day from the government funds, and have their traveling expenses re-imbursed.

All the school districts are divided into eight reading circles, (*lesekreise*), with a teachers' library in each, which is managed by a committee of three, and which receives new books every year. Every teacher must contribute one or two francs annually, the government pays an annual subsidy, and something more is realized from fines and free donations.

Real-Schools.

The real-school is a continuation of the primary school, and its aim is to complete the knowledge acquired at the latter, and to prepare scholars for practical life, or for some higher institution of learning. Every real-school must have at least two classes, and the number of recitation hours can not exceed thirty-five per week. Pupils are admitted who have gone through the first six courses of the primary school in a satisfactory manner.

The course of instruction is as follows:

CLASSES.	Two Courses.		Three Courses.		
	I.	II.	I.	II.	III.
Religion, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
German, - - - -	6	5	6	5	5
French, - - - -	5	5	5-6	5	4-5
Arithmetic, - - -	4	4	4	4	3-4
Geometry, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
History, - - - -	2-3	2	2	2	2
Geography, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Natural Sciences, - -	3	3	2	3	3
Singing, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Drawing, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	34-35	33	33-34	33	29-31

All the above-mentioned subjects are obligatory. The school-fee is not to exceed fifty francs.

Instruction in the real-schools with two courses is given by one teacher, but if there are more than thirty-five scholars, there is to be an assistant teacher, and if the number of pupils exceeds fifty, a second teacher. In

real-schools with three courses, there must be at least two teachers, and in those with four courses, three teachers.

Teachers' Seminary.

The teachers' seminary, formerly in connection with the canton school, but at present at Mariaberg, near Rorschach, consists of three courses of one year each. Candidates have to undergo an examination in religion, German, French, arithmetic, singing, drawing, and writing. Students are at first only admitted provisionally for three months, at the end of which time the teachers must decide whether they shall be admitted definitely, or be dismissed. Natives of the canton of St. Gallen receive their lodging, board, and tuition free. There is an examination at the end of every year.

The course of instruction is as follows :

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.
Pedagogics, - - - - -	2	3	6
German, - - - - -	6	6	5
French, - - - - -	2	2	2
Arithmetic, - - - - -	3	3	3
Geometry, - - - - -	2	2	2
Geography, - - - - -	2	2	2
History, - - - - -	2	2	2
Natural sciences, - - - - -	3	4	4
Drawing, - - - - -	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - - - -	2	2	2
Singing, - - - - -	3	2	1
Choir singing, - - - - -	3	3	3
Harmonics, - - - - -	-	1	2
Piano and Organ, - - - - -	4	3	3
Violin, - - - - -	2	2	2
Gymnastics, - - - - -	2	2	2
Religion, (for catholics,) - - - - -	3	3	3
Religion, (for protestants,) - - - - -	2	3	3

The faculty consists of one director and a number of teachers and assistant teachers. The director has the general superintendence of the seminary, the model-school, and the students' boarding-house connected therewith. He imparts instruction in every class from sixteen to eighteen hours per week, in all. The teachers have to keep a maximum of twenty-eight hours per week, and form, under the presidency of the director, the teachers' conference, which assembles every month, and must be attended by all the teachers. -

The seminary is under the supervision of the board of education, (*erzie-
hungs-rath*), which fixes the course of instruction, decides in questions of dismissal of pupils, and makes all necessary regulations, &c.

In connection with the seminary, there is a model-school, whose teacher is chosen by the board of education. The students at the seminary have opportunities for engaging in agricultural pursuits, partly to get a knowledge of agriculture, and partly for out-door exercise.

At the seminary there are also review courses for teachers, extending four to six weeks, the number of teachers being limited to thirty-two to one course.

Candidates for teachers' places in a primary or a real-school must have a certificate of eligibility, which is only given after a strict examination. This examination is both theoretical and practical, and covers all the subjects taught in primary and real-schools.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The cantonal school at St. Gall has two divisions, a gymnasium and an industrial school.

The gymnasium forms a continuation of the sixth year of the primary school, and only such are admitted who show a sufficient knowledge of the subjects taught in those classes.

The industrial school forms a continuation of the second year of the real-school, and has two divisions,—the mercantile and technical,—the former comprising three years, and the latter, four. On entering, pupils must show a satisfactory knowledge of the subjects taught in a real-school of two courses.

Instruction is free to natives of the canton, who pay a fee of five francs for the library and apparatus. Students who attend the practical course of chemistry, pay fifteen francs per annum.

At the head of the institution is a rector, chosen from among the teachers by the cantonal board for three years. He is only obliged to give twenty hours weekly instruction, and has an additional salary of 500 francs. He is assisted in the discharge of his duties by a conrector, who has an additional salary of 350 francs. The rector, conrector, and one of the teachers form the so-called *rectorate committee*.

The course of instruction at the gymnasium is as follows:

CLASSES.	Upper Gymnasium.				Lower Gymnasium.		
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.
Religion and Church History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
German,	6	4	3	3	3	2	3
Latin,	10	7	6	6	6	6	5
Greek,	—	—	6	5	5	5	5
French,	—	5	3	3	2	2	1
Hebrew,	—	—	—	—	—	3	3
History,	—	2	2	2	3	3	2
Geography,	4	2	1	—	—	—	—
Math. and Physical Geography,	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Mathematics,	6	5	4	4	3	2	2
Natural Sciences,	—	2	3	2	3	—	2
Physics,	—	—	—	3	3	—	1
Chemistry,	—	—	—	—	—	3	7
Philosophy,	—	—	—	—	—	2	4
Rhetoric,	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Drawing,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Calligraphy and Book-keeping,	2	1	—	—	—	—	—
Singing,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Fencing, &c.,	2	2	2	3	2	2	2

The course of instruction of the technical division of the industrial school is the following :

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Religion, - - - - -	2	2	2	2
German, - - - - -	3	3	2	2
French, - - - - -	4	3	3	2
English, - - - - -	4	3	2	-
Italian, - - - - -	-	-	4	3
History, - - - - -	2	2	3	2
Geography, - - - - -	3	-	-	-
Arithmetic, - - - - -	4	-	-	-
Algebra, - - - - -	2	4	2	6
Geometry, - - - - -	4	4	3	-
Descriptive Geometry and Geometrical Drawing, }	-	6	6	6
Natural History, - - - - -	3	2	2	-
Physics, - - - - -	-	3	3	1
Chemistry, - - - - -	-	-	3	3
Practical Chemistry, - - - - -	-	-	-	5
Mechanics, - - - - -	-	-	2	4
Mechanical Technology, - - - - -	-	-	-	2
Pract. and Analytical Geometry, - - - - -	-	-	-	3
Physical and Math. Geography, - - - - -	-	-	-	2
Free-hand Drawing, - - - - -	2	2	2	2
Modeling, - - - - -	-	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - - - -	2	-	-	-

The course of instruction in the mercantile division of the industrial school is the following :

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.
Religion, - - - - -	2	2	2
German, - - - - -	3	3	3
French, - - - - -	5	4	4
English, - - - - -	4	3	2
Italian, - - - - -	-	4	3
Spanish, - - - - -	-	3	3
History, - - - - -	2	2	2
Geography, - - - - -	3	2	-
Arithmetic, - - - - -	3	5	3
Algebra, - - - - -	2	-	-
Geometry, - - - - -	2	2	-
Book-keeping, - - - - -	-	2	-
Natural History, - - - - -	3	2	2
Physics, - - - - -	-	2	3
Drawing, - - - - -	2	2	2
Calligraphy, - - - - -	2	-	-
Weaving, - - - - -	-	2	4
Chemistry, - - - - -	-	-	3
Physical and Mathematical Geography, - - - - -	-	-	2
Mechanical Technology, - - - - -	-	-	2
Singing, - - - - -	2	2	2
Gymnastics, - - - - -	2	2	2
Fencing, Military Drill, &c., - - - - -	2	2	2

The teachers at the canton school have the title of professor, and are obliged to give instruction from twenty to twenty-five hours per week. The salary of the teachers ranges from 2,600 to 3,000 francs.

Statistics for 1866.

There were 400 primary schools, (*gemeinde schulen*.) in 1866; of these, there were 157 half-year schools; 32 three-quarters of a year schools; 27 divided year schools; 35 half-day year schools; 23 partial year schools; and 126 year schools.

The every day schools were attended by 22,356 scholars, (11,224 boys, and 11,132 girls.) The supplementary schools were attended by 4,032 scholars, (1,821 boys, and 2,201 girls.) The industrial schools were attended by 8,148 girls. The 30 real-schools were attended by 898 boys, and 358 girls. The teachers' seminary, in 1866, had 63 students, of whom 38 were catholics, and 25 protestants. At the cantonal school, the number of students was 216; of whom, 87 were in the gymnasium; 71 in the technical division; and 58 in the mercantile. Of the 216 pupils, 74 were catholics, 138 protestants, and 4 Israelites.

The canton paid, in 1866, 31,000 francs for primary schools; 10,000 for real-schools; 75,800 for the higher cantonal schools; and 42,000 for teachers' seminaries; or a total sum of 148,800 francs for all purposes.

Portions of the old convent library, with valuable manuscripts, are still preserved in the abbot's palace at St. Gall, now used for the public offices of the cantonal government. There is a well-conducted orphan asylum at the same place.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN TESSIN.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

TESSIN, or TICHINO, was originally inhabited by the Langobardi, and was formerly known as the Italian bailiwicks. From the beginning of the fifteenth century, it formed the constant bone of contention between the Swiss and Milanese, and was frequently the scene of sanguinary conflicts. These lasted for centuries, the greater part of the canton being mostly under the rule of the Milanese, whilst the smaller northern portion nominally belonged to Uri. In 1797, Tessin became part of the cis-alpine republic, and in 1803, one of the regular Swiss cantons. The present constitution dates from 1830. In 1860, there were 131,396 inhabitants, on an area of 1,034 square miles, of whom all, but 215, were catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Till quite recently, education in Tessin was very much neglected, and the schools were in every way inferior to the French and German cantons. Thorough reforms were instituted by the laws of 1815 and 1831, but without immediate results, for in 1835, one-third of the inhabitants of the canton could neither read nor write. Special praise is due to the well-known statistician, FRANSINI, who, by untiring exertions, brought about the adoption of a law, (June 1, 1835,) by which pecuniary aid from the government was guaranteed to such public schools as would, in their organization and course of instruction, fulfil the conditions prescribed by the laws. The political re-organization of Tessin dates from the year 1854–55, and with it, the whole educational system underwent a complete change.

Subject to the authority of the government council, (*staats rath*,) all the schools are under the general superintendence of the board of education, (*consiglio di pubblica educazione*,) which is composed of six members, chosen by the government council. A member of this council presides at the sittings of the board, and the members of the board are chosen for four years. They receive a remuneration of five francs for each day they are in session, and ten francs for each journey-day.

The canton is divided into sixteen school districts, with an inspector in each, who is charged with the visitation of all public and private schools. These inspectors are appointed by the government council, on the recommendation of the board of education. They must visit all the schools of their district twice a year, and attend all examinations. In every village there is a local board appointed by the municipal authorities.

The educational establishments of the canton are: 1. Primary schools, including all elementary and infant schools. 2. Secondary schools, includ-

ing the gymnasia, industrial schools, the higher grades of public schools, and the schools of design, (*zeichnungs schulen.*) 3. Superior schools.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The children of every village or town must have access to a public primary school, but the smaller villages may maintain one in common with the neighboring village. In villages of more than 500 inhabitants, two or more schools must be established, and if practicable, there must be one for boys and one for girls. If there are more than sixty children in a school, a parallel course, or second school, must be established. Every primary school must have two classes, and every class, two divisions. The course of instruction in the first class includes: elements of Italian, calligraphy, arithmetic, religion, and singing. In the second class, besides these, grammar, elements of agriculture, geography, duties of a citizen, (*doveri del cittadino,*) must be taught. Girls are, in both classes, to be instructed in needle-work and domestic economy.

The salaries of the teachers are fixed as follows: in a school numbering thirty-five to forty children at 350 to 450 francs; forty-five to sixty scholars at 400 to 500 francs; fifty and more scholars at 450 to 600 francs. Children are obliged to attend school from the age of six to fourteen. School must be kept 9 to 10 months each year, and 4 hours each day.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

There are secondary schools for boys and girls. Every school of this grade has three courses of one year each.

The course of instruction in the boys' school is as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.
Italian, - -	10	9	6
Arithmetic, - -	5	4	4
Swiss History, - -	3	2	-
General History, - -	-	-	3
Natural History, - -	-	-	2
Geography, - -	3	2	2
Calligraphy, - -	3	2	-
Linear Drawing, - -	2	-	-
Religion, - -	1	1	1
Geometry, - -	-	2	2
French, - -	-	3	3
Book-keeping, - -	-	2	2
Constitution of Switzerland, -	-	-	2

The same subjects are taught in the girls' schools, but in addition, needle-work, ornamental drawing, flower and landscape drawing, domestic economy, are introduced. The school lasts ten months. The school-fee is seven francs, with an extra charge for drawing of ten francs. Girls pay five francs. Very poor children are exempt from all payment. Candidates for admission must not be younger than nine, or older than seventeen. The number of scholars in one class is not to exceed forty. The teachers are appointed by the government council. The salary of professors varies from 900 to 1,300 francs; of assistant teachers from 600 to

1,000 francs; of female teachers from 500 to 800 francs. In every school there must be a library of reference and circulation, and a museum of natural history, to which the government makes a small annual contribution.

In every district there is to be a school of design, (*zeichnung schule*), in which the course of instruction shall embrace ornamental drawing, architectural drawing, practical geometry, drawing of figures, and the elements of perspective. Pupils are only admitted after having completed nine years of age, and who can show a satisfactory knowledge of the subjects taught at the primary schools. The school-fee is 9 francs. For the collection of models, 300 francs are annually appropriated by the government, all other expenses must be met by the village where the school is situated.

For the education of primary school teachers, an annual pedagogical course in the three chief cities of the canton, (*scuola di metodica*), must be maintained. Candidates for admission to this course must undergo an examination in Italian, arithmetic, writing, &c.

All teachers and professors are appointed by the government council; must be eighteen years of age, and undergo an examination.

There are cantonal gymnasiums at Mendrisio, Lugano, Locarno, Bellinzona, and Pollegio, each having two divisions, (literary and industrial,) and six classes. The two first classes constitute the preparatory course, and the other four the higher gymnasium.

The following is the course of instruction in the preparatory course:

CLASSES.	I.	II.
Religion, - - - - -	1	1
Italian, - - - - -	10	8
French, - - - - -	-	3
Swiss History, - - - - -	2	2
Geography, - - - - -	2	2
Arithmetic, - - - - -	4	4
Geometry, - - - - -	-	2
Linear Drawing, - - - - -	2	-
Calligraphy, - - - - -	3	2

The course of instruction in the literary division is as follows:

CLASSES.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion, - - - - -	1	1	1	1
Italian, - - - - -	5	3	3	3
German, - - - - -	-	3	3	3
Latin Language, - - - - -	5	5	2	2
Latin Literature, - - - - -	-	-	3	3
French, - - - - -	3	3	2	2
Geography, - - - - -	2	2	2	2
General History, - - - - -	3	2	3	2
Arithmetic, - - - - -	2	2	2	2
Geometry, - - - - -	2	2	2	2
History of Switzerland, - - - - -	1	1	1	2

In the industrial division, Latin is omitted, and book-keeping, natural history, and technology, are substituted. There are generally from four to five professors, with several special teachers. The salary of a professor is 1,100 francs, and is gradually increased till it reaches the sum of 1,225 francs. For text-books and apparatus, a small appropriation is made by the government. The school-fee must not exceed fifteen franca.

The Lyceum has two divisions,—one of philosophy, and one of architecture and surveying. The course in each occupies two years.

The subjects taught in the philosophical division are :

CLASSES.	I.	II.
Elementary Mathematics, - - -	7½	—
Philosophy, - - - - -	6	6
Experimental Physics, - - -	—	7½
Italian and Latin Literature, - -	4	4
General History, - - - - -	2	2
German and French Literature, - -	4	—
Natural History, - - - - -	3	2
Chemistry, - - - - -	2	2
Mechanics, - - - - -	—	3

The course in the division of architecture and surveying includes :

CLASSES.	I	II.
Mathematics, - - - - -	7½	—
Physics, - - - - -	—	7½
Architecture, - - - - -	10	10
Natural History, - - - - -	3	—
Chemistry, - - - - -	2	3
German and French, - - - - -	4	—
Mechanics, - - - - -	—	3
Surveying, - - - - -	—	3

At the end of every year an examination is held which decides whether a scholar is to advance into the next highest class or not. The term lasts ten months. Tuition fee for students in the division of philosophy is 30 francs; in the division of architecture and surveying, 20 francs. For admission, and at subsequent examinations, a fee of five francs must be paid.

The rector is appointed by the government. The vice-rector and the secretary are chosen by the professors.

In order to enter the philosophical division, a certificate is required of having satisfactorily completed the literary division of the gymnasium, whilst at the division of architecture and surveying, proof must be given of having successfully finished the studies in the industrial division. Those who do not possess such a certificate, must undergo an examination by a committee specially appointed for that purpose.

The salary of a professor at the lyceum is 1,600 francs, to be gradually increased to 2,000 francs, at the rate of 100 francs for each four years. The rector receives, in addition, 300 francs, and the secretary 200. The assistants have from 800 to 1,000 francs. An annual sum of 200 to 300 francs is appropriated for the library and museum.

Statistics in 1866.

There are 461 primary schools, with 16,204 scholars, and 244 male and 217 female teachers; of these, 219 are kept six months during the year; 20, seven months; 32, eight months; 21, nine months; 169, ten months. There are 15 higher primary schools, with 590 pupils; 4 infant schools, with 198 pupils; 8 schools of design, with 408 pupils; and 5 secondary schools, with 373 pupils, besides 4 private schools of this grade, with 126 pupils, and one agricultural school, with 37 pupils. Total expense, 123,830 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THURGOVIA.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

DURING the middle ages Thurgovia formed part of the Duchy of Alemannia, from which it was separated by the Emperor Henry IV., who gave it to the Ducal House of Zähringen. When in 1218 this line became extinct, it passed into the possession of the counts of Kyburg. From these the counts of Hapsburg inherited it, and thus it finally came under the jurisdiction of the house of Austria. In 1460 it was taken by the Swiss, and ruled by the old Cantons in common. By the peace of Basle, 1499, the emperor Maximilian I. formally ceded the greater part of Thurgovia to Switzerland. In 1803 Thurgovia became an independent Canton. Its present constitution dates from the year 1834. In 1860, on an area of 2,685 square miles, there were 90,347 inhabitants, of whom 67,861 were protestants, and 22,152 were catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Under the general authority of the cantonal government the immediate superintendence of all school matters is entrusted to the board of education, which consists of five members chosen by the great council, (*grosse rath*,) for three years. This board submits drafts for new laws and regulations, fixes the general plan of studies, selects the text-books, appoints and dismisses teachers. The members receive a remuneration of 6½ rappen for every day devoted to school duties, and traveling expense. The president receives 200 francs in addition. The board is allowed a clerk, who receives besides the session and journey money, an annual salary of 650 francs with an allowance for stationery, &c.

The whole Canton is divided into eight districts; in each district there is a district school board of five to nine members, appointed for three years. All primary school matters are under its jurisdiction; they must urge parents and guardians to be conscientious in sending their children to school, and are authorized to inflict fines in case of continued neglect; they are to see that text-books and apparatus are provided, to make the annual report to the higher school authorities, to manage the school-funds, &c.

In each district there is a school inspector, chosen for three years by the Canton board of education. He must at least once a year inspect all the schools of his district, and be in communication with the board. His salary is 150 to 400 francs per annum.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The primary schools are divided into three divisions, viz: the elementary school, the real school, and the repetition or supplementary school. The subjects of instruction are: religion and morals, native language, arithmetic, geometry, elements of natural sciences, history, geography, calligraphy, drawing, singing. The denominational religious instruction is imparted by the clergyman of the place at special hours.

If in any school borough, (*schul gemeinde*,) the number of children exceeds 100 for four years in succession, a second school must be established. The minimum of school session during the year at the elementary schools, is 38 weeks, 18 during summer, and 20 during winter. The number of hours per week is 27.

Children are obliged to attend school from the age of five to fifteen, but during the last year they only attend the review or repetition school. Absence from school is strictly punished, every unexcused absence involving a fine of 10 rappen, and absences from the repetition or working school 20 rappen. The district school board is authorized to inflict on parents or guardians fines as high as 20 francs or ten days in prison, for continued cases of negligence. If this punishment has been applied twice in vain, the guilty party is handed over to the district court.

Teachers must undergo an examination. They are obliged to give instruction for 34 hours in winter and 32 hours in summer. They may at the same time have the office of organist or choir-singer, but are positively forbidden to keep a boarding-house or tavern.

The income of the primary school teacher is regulated in the following way: from the borough and the government they receive a salary of 500 francs, a decent house and some land, also a school-fee of 3 francs for every scholar who attends the every-day school summer and winter; of 2 francs for one who attends during winter, and 1 franc for scholars of the repetition and working school. The salary is gradually raised from 50 francs additional (after six years,) up to 200 francs additional (after twenty-one years' service.) The salary is paid half-yearly.

There are teachers' conferences, divided into cantonal, district, and special. All teachers of primary and secondary schools are members of the cantonal conference, of which members of the board of education, school inspectors, &c., are made honorary members. This conference chooses a president and secretary for three years. It assembles once a year in summer, and every member contributes towards the general fund required for the expenses of the conference. The educational matters of the whole Canton, the introduction of new systems, books, &c., form the subjects of discussion, and its decisions influence the school authorities.

All the teachers of a district constitute the district conference, which discuss the school matters pertaining to the district. It is organized after the same plan with the cantonal conference.

The special conferences, six times a year, are merely intended for an interchange of ideas amongst the teachers living in the same neighborhood.

Children who are employed in factories must, if there is no factory school in the place, attend a certain number of hours at the public school. They are not permitted to enter the factory school before the completion of the eleventh year of their age. The superintendence of the factory schools, in which instruction must be given for at least nine hours per week, is entrusted to a special inspector appointed by the board of education.

Girls are obliged to attend the industrial school from the completion of the ninth year of their age till they leave school. The number of instruction-hours is to be at least six hours per week. As soon as there are more than twenty-five girls in a class, a new class has to be started. The subjects of instruction are needle-work and domestic economy. A special committee of competent ladies is entrusted with the management and general superintendence of these schools. The teachers are chosen for six years by the district school board, and the school-fee is one franc.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The secondary schools are to continue and expand the knowledge gained at the elementary school, and prepare pupils for higher schools. The whole Canton is divided into twenty-three secondary school-districts, with a secondary school in each. The village which takes the contract for providing the school-house, furniture, teacher's house, &c., obtains the school. If no village offers to take the contract, the board of education appoints the place, and then all the villages of the district must contribute to the expense. The subjects of instruction are: religion, morals, German, French, arithmetic, book-keeping, geometry, geography, history, constitution of Switzerland, natural history, singing, drawing, and calligraphy; these are obligatory. The following are optional: gymnastics, Latin, and Greek. The course occupies three years, each year having 42 full school-weeks of 33 hours each. Before being admitted, pupils must pass a successful examination in the elementary branches. The annual government contribution to each secondary school with one teacher, is 900 francs, to each secondary school with two teachers, 1,000 to 1,200 francs; the school-fee is 20 francs. The teachers are appointed by the board of education, generally for six years. The salary of a teacher at one of the secondary schools is at least 1,200 francs and free lodging, with an increase after several years' service.

There are conferences of the secondary school teachers, organized in the same way as those of the elementary school teachers. Candidates for teachers' places must be over twenty years of age, and must submit to an oral, written, and practical examination by a committee appointed by the board of education.

The regulation of the supplementary schools dates from 1866. They form a branch of the secondary school, and the same teacher instructs in both. The number of hours per week is at least two, and the school-fee

amounts to a maximum of three francs. Subjects of instruction are: business composition, elements of book-keeping, practical arithmetic, free-hand and technical drawing.

The Cantonal School at Frauenfeld was opened in 1853, and prepares pupils for the university or polytechnic school, and also gives the necessary instruction to those who wish on leaving school to devote themselves to some mercantile or industrial pursuit. The school is consequently divided into a gymnasium and an industrial school. The gymnasium has six classes of one year each, with the exception of the sixth, (the highest,) which occupies two years. The industrial school has likewise six classes, and is subdivided into a technical and a mercantile division. The course of instruction is the same as at similar schools of other Cantons. The maximum salary of a teacher is 2,700 francs; the rector has 400 francs additional. Teachers are appointed for eight years, the rector only for two.

The Teachers' Seminary for the Canton of Thurgovia is at Kreutzlingen, and is under the superintendence of the board of education. The course of instruction lasts three years. Conditions of admission are: completion of the sixteenth year, good health, the necessary preliminary knowledge, and good religious and moral conduct. The students board at the school. There is one director, one head-master, one music-teacher, and several assistant teachers. The director is obliged to give 24 hours a week instruction, and the head-master 30 hours. The director, music-teacher, and head-master, are appointed for six years, and get free lodging and the following salaries: director 2,200 to 2,600 francs, head-master 1,500 to 1,800, music-teacher 1,300 to 1,500, assistant teachers 1,500 to 2,100. There are annual stipends in aid of poor students.

There is for the teachers of the whole Canton a widows' and orphans' fund, towards which every teacher is obliged to pay an annual contribution of from 10 to 15 francs. The government also pays an annual contribution. In case of death, the widow receives an annual subsidy of 100 francs, and orphans the same sum till the completion of their sixteenth year.

In connection with the Teachers' Seminary there is an Agricultural School, organized by the law of March 18th, 1850. Pupils have to pay an annual sum for board and tuition, of 200 francs the first year, 100 the second, if they are natives of the Canton; if not, 400 francs the first year, 350 the second. There is a director, one head-master, and several teachers. The course of instruction lasts two years, and is both theoretical and practical, and embraces the subjects usually taught at agricultural schools.

Statistics.

In 1866, there were 205 primary schools, with 234 teachers, and 8,200 pupils; 23 secondary schools, with 659 pupils; 1 cantonal school, with 50 pupils in the gymnasial division and 156 in the industrial or real division; 1 teachers' seminary, with 78 pupils, and 1 agricultural school, with 30 students. The public schools of this Canton owe much to the instruction and influence of Jacob Wehrli, a pupil of Fellenberg, who was at the head of the Teachers' Seminary at Kruitlingen for 35 years.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN UNTERWALD.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

UNTERWALD, one of the three original cantons, belonged successively to the empire of the Franks, Burgundy, and the German empire. As early as the twelfth century, it had formed a partial union with Schwytz and Uri, and in 1308, it entered with them the famous offensive and defensive alliance against Austria. In the year 1847, it joined the seceding cantons. The division into two half-cantons, viz: Obwalden and Nidwalden, (upper and lower valley,) by a forest called *Kernwald*, which crosses it from north to south, is very old, and can be traced as far back as the twelfth century. The constitution of Obwalden dates from 1850, and that of Nidwalden from the same year. In 1860, on an area of 262 square miles, there was a total population of 24,902, (of which 13,376 were in Obwalden, and 11,526 in Nidwalden); all, but 150, are catholics.

It was in this canton, desolated with fire and sword by the French soldiery, amongst the ruins of the little village of Hanz, that Pertalozzi, in the year 1798, gathered, fed, clothed, and taught a company of orphan and deserted children, and began his system of industrial training of the young.

I. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN OBWALDEN.

The public schools in the half-canton of Obwalden are under the regulations of a board of education, which consists of five members; the president and two members, chosen by the government, and the other three, by the clergy, from their own number. They all serve for a period of four years. This board meets twice a year; decides on the plan and method of instruction, as well as the text-books to be used; examines candidates for teachers, and gives certificates of qualification; and elects an experienced teacher as inspector for four years, who visits and examines thoroughly every school of the canton at least once a year, and submits an annual report to the board.

In every village there is a local committee, consisting of the pastor of the place as president, and two members, chosen by the village council, to serve for four years. The president must inspect the school at least once a month.

The course of instruction at the primary schools embraces: religion, reading, calligraphy, orthography, arithmetic, grammar, Bible history, history and geography of Switzerland, simple book-keeping, and if possible, drawing and singing; for the girls, female work.

Children are obliged by law to attend school from the age of six, till they have gone through all the classes.

Conditions for obtaining a teacher's place are : a certificate of qualification given after an examination by the board of education. The teachers are chosen by the inhabitants of the town or village. Those persons who wish to establish a private school, must likewise obtain a certificate of qualification, and are under the supervision of the school authorities.

There is a cantonal school at Sarnen, consisting of a real-school with three classes, and a gymnasium.

The real-school formerly had two classes, but has now three. Among the subjects taught, besides the common real-school subjects, are, fruit and forest culture, and the French language.

The gymnasium has six classes; the two lower classes are called grammar classes; the middle two, syntax classes; the highest two classes, rhetoric. Instruction in Greek commences in the third class. Natural history, physics, and mathematics are treated very thoroughly. French, Italian, and drawing are optional subjects. In connection with the institution there is a boarding-house for pupils from abroad.

Statistics for 1866.

In Obwalden, there were 35 elementary schools, with 34 male and 11 female teachers, and 1,349 pupils. Half of the male teachers are clergymen, and all the female teachers belong to some religious sisterhood. At Sarnen there is a repetition school, attended by 26 boys. There are two gymnasia, with 13 teachers, and 47 pupils.

Total expenditure by the government for primary and secondary schools, 6,500 francs.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN NIDWALDEN.

In this half-canton, (12,000 inhabitants,) the public schools are under the control of a board, (of five members,) to which belongs the examination of teachers, the arrangement of studies, the visitation of the schools, and the submitting of an annual report.

The schools are divided into year schools, winter schools, summer schools, whole-day schools, and half-day schools.

The course of instruction includes: religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, and in some schools, also Swiss history, natural philosophy, geography, drawing, and book-keeping.

The cantonal supplementary school for teachers at Stans, has a two years' course.

Statistics.

In 1866, there were, in seventeen parishes, 34 primary schools, with 1,260 scholars, and 35 teachers, (21 males and 13 females). The attendance is quite punctual and regular, and the teachers full of professional zeal and improvement.

Of the primary schools, 8 are for boys, 7 for girls, and 19 for boys and girls. The minimum number of scholars in a school is 8; the maximum, 70; average, 37.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN URI.

HISTORY—POPULATION—AREA.

URI is first mentioned in the year 853, when King Ludwig, grandson of Charlemagne, gave this territory to the convent of Zurich. Besides this convent, the convent of Wettingen, the counts of Rapperswyl, the barons of Attinghausen, and other nobles, exercised sovereign sway over portions of the canton. Uri was made famous in history by William Tell, and the Swiss revolution of 1308, when, uniting with Schwytz and Unterwald, it founded the nucleus of the Swiss confederation. This canton having always been strongly conservative and catholic, joined the seceding cantons in the short war of 1847. The present constitution, which is purely democratic, dates from the year 1820, and was revised in 1850. The population in 1860, on an area of 420 square miles, was 14,761.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The superintendence of the entire system of public instruction of the canton is entrusted to a board of education, (*erziehungsrath*), which makes an annual report to the cantonal council, (*landrath*). This board consists of five clerical and five lay members. One of the members is elected by the district council (*bezirksrath*) of Ursern, one by the commune of Altorf, one by the ecclesiastical board, (*kirchenrath*), one by the hospital board of Altorf, two by the ecclesiastical chapter, (*kapitel*), and the remaining five by the cantonal council. The schools are divided into the primary schools and the Cantonal school.

The girls' schools, which are chiefly conducted by religious sisterhoods, are divided into primary and secondary departments.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

For purposes of primary instruction, the whole canton is divided into three districts, each of which is under the supervision of an inspector, who is always a clergyman, and is appointed by the cantonal board of education. Each district is sub-divided into communes, (*gemeinden*), and the immediate supervision of the schools of each commune is entrusted to the local council, (*gemeinderath*).

Great improvements have been recently made in the primary school system. The law provides that in all those communes where there is no regular local school board elected, a temporary one shall be appointed by the cantonal authority, of which the clergyman is *ex officio* president. This local school board superintends the school of the commune, visits the school from time to time in a body, and examines the report which the

teacher is to hand in every month. Every second month the school board must make a report to the cantonal school inspector, that this official may be enabled to inform the cantonal board of education of all the wants of the various schools. New text-books have been introduced, and the attendance at school has been very largely increased.

There is no teachers' seminary, but the cantonal government grants subsidies to diligent youths, who wish to prepare themselves for teaching, at a seminary of one of the neighboring cantons. Every autumn, *all* the teachers of the canton must attend a repetition course of one week at Altorf, which is obligatory. The expenses for primary instruction amounted to 2,369.23 francs.

We add a few extracts from the school code of Uri: School must be held in all the communes of the canton from the beginning of December till the end of April every week day, and during the rest of the year at least twice a week. Children must not be admitted to confirmation, unless they have attended school diligently and can read fluently. Parents must not interfere with the teacher in school matters, as long as he acts in accordance with the laws of the board of education. The schoolmaster, who is to be a pious and honest man, must not only influence the children for good by his precepts and his example while they are at school, but must see that at home, at church, and on the streets, the scholars observe the rules of decorum. In each primary school the children must be divided into three classes; in the first class, children learn the alphabet; in the second, they attend to spelling and the elements of writing and arithmetic; in the third class, they spell and read, and besides writing and arithmetic continued, they learn the smaller catechism of Constance and of St. Urben.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The secondary schools are under the immediate superintendence of the board of education, which grants an annual stipend to the amount of 655 francs to aid young men who wish to prepare themselves for teachers of this class of schools. The government pays annually, for secondary instruction, 2,790.72 francs.

The cantonal school was reorganized in 1866. It consists of a gymnasium with six courses of one year each and 12 pupils, and a real school with four classes and 9 pupils. This last-named school has met with much opposition from the ultra-catholic party, who in their report on the subject said that "real schools were the hot-beds of radicalism and infidelity."

There is besides the cantonal school only one secondary school for girls at Altorf, the capital, with 13 pupils, who are reported as "excelling in arithmetic and female work."

The number of primary schools in the year 1867, was 37, in 23 communes, with 1,961 pupils, (976 boys, and 985 girls,) and 45 (37 male and 8 female) teachers.

Total expense of primary and secondary schools to the government, 5,159.95 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN VALAIS.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

VALAIS formed part of ancient Helvetia, and was inhabited by the Seduni and Veragri. Till the middle of the fifth century, it continued to be under Roman dominion, when for a short time, it belonged to Burgundy, and was, in 534, absorbed by the great empire of the Franks. In 888, it again came under Burgundian jurisdiction, and finally became part of the German empire. The emperors, however, left a great deal of independence to the liberty-loving inhabitants of these distant valleys. In 1513, Valais concluded an alliance with the Swiss confederation, and was established as a separate canton in 1798. For a few years it formed a part of the French empire, (department of the Simplon,) under Napoleon I, and its independence was completely established in 1815. In the year 1847, it joined the seceding cantons. The present constitution dates from the year 1852. In 1860, there were 90,880 inhabitants, on an area of 1,661 square miles, of whom all, but 697, were catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

As late as 1840, education in this canton was entirely in the hands of the clergy, who were obliged to impart instruction without charge to the children of their respective parishes. Many of them were utterly incompetent. No child was obliged to attend school. For some time energetic reformatory measures were taken, when a liberal government got the reins of power in 1839; but the reactionary party again gained the upper hand in 1844, and undid all the good that had been done. Valais took part in the war of 1847, as one of the seceding cantons. At the close of the war, the liberal party again came into power, drove out the Jesuits, and inaugurated many beneficial reforms. Although the canton since then has gone through various political phases, educational matters have nevertheless been constantly progressing. The highest authority is a board of education, (*erziehungs rath*,) consisting of three members.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The children of every village or town must have access to a public primary school, but several villages may have one school in common. Every child is obliged to attend school from the age of seven to fifteen. Whenever the number of scholars will admit of two teachers, the sexes are to be taught in separate classes, and a special school for girls must be established whenever the number of scholars exceeds sixty.

The highest authority is the cantonal board of education, which consists of five members appointed by the grand council. The canton is divided into three districts, with an inspector in each, who is obliged to inspect annually all the schools of his district. The special management of every school is confided to a committee of three, chosen by the municipal council. This committee must visit the school at least once a month.

The male and female teachers at the primary schools must possess a certificate of qualification. Stipends are granted by the government to deserving young men to study at a normal school. Persons who have had the benefit of a stipend, are obliged to teach five years at some primary school. Teachers are not allowed to carry on any trade or business.

The primary schools are divided into a lower and a higher division. The subjects of instruction at the former are: catechism, reading, writing, elements of arithmetic; and at the higher, besides these subjects: grammar, elements of Bible history, elements of Swiss history, geography, book-keeping, higher arithmetic, singing, fruit culture for boys, and domestic work for girls. Every child who has attended school for the full period prescribed by law, receives a certificate to that effect. School opens in November, and must last at least five months. Absence from school is severely punished. Religious instruction is imparted by the clergymen.

There are four normal courses or institutes for the professional improvement of primary school teachers, which last two months. A candidate for a regular teacher's place must teach one year on trial. There is an industrial school in the chief city of the canton.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

There are three gymnasia, (*colléges*,) institutions of a secondary grade, viz: at Sitten, Brig, and St. Moritz. At Sitten there is a lyceum and law school for Roman and civil law. At the gymnasia at Brig and St. Moritz there are preparatory courses. The classes are called: *principi*, *rudimenta*, grammar, syntax, rhetorics, philosophy, (and in Sitten, also physics.) In Sitten and St. Moritz there is a middle, or intermediate school, (*école moyenne*,) connected with the gymnasium; also a boarding-house.

Statistics.

In 1867, there were 392 primary schools; of which, 115 were for boys, and 100 for girls; 165 mixed; and 12 in which the boys and girls alternate.

Among the teachers there were 35 clergymen, and 30 nuns, or sisters of some religious order. There are 114 teachers (male and female) having certificates, and 229 provisionally appointed. The sum expended for teachers' salaries in 1866, was 55,000 francs, (an average of 150 francs for each teacher,) and the consequence of these miserable salaries is, that the greatest difficulty is experienced in procuring teachers.

The number of children attending primary schools was 15,119. The number of scholars at the gymnasia was: in Sitten, 74; Brig, 93; St. Moritz, 98; total, 225. The number of students at the law school, 18.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN VAUD.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

VAUD at the time of Cæsar belonged to Helvetia, and subsequently to the Roman Province of Maxima Sequanorum. It afterwards formed part of Burgundy, fell to the portion of Lothar when in 843 the great empire of the Franks was divided among the grandsons of Charlemagne, and again belonged to Burgundy for a short time. Subsequently it passed into the hands of the German emperors, who gave it as a fief to the counts of Zähringen, and when this line became extinct it reverted again to the German empire. In 1370 it was conquered by count Peter of Savoy. After the victories of the Swiss over Charles the Bold of Burgundy in 1476, and the victory of the Bernese over the count of Savoy in 1536, it was entirely ceded by Savoy to Berne, and formed part of that Canton till the year 1798, when it was established as a separate Canton. The present constitution dates from 1830, and was revised in 1845. It had in 1860 a population of 213,606, on an area of 1,181 square miles—119,465 protestants, and 13,841 catholics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The reformation in the educational matters in the Canton of Vaud dates from the end of the last century, and was inaugurated in Berne and throughout the whole of Switzerland, by Staffer, who in 1798 was entrusted with the superintendence of education. By his influence, in 1800 education was placed under the supervision of special councilors; schools were ordered to be established in every town and village, and all children were obliged by law to attend school. But not till Vaud became an independent Canton (in 1803) did the great council publish the first law embracing all the schools and institutions of learning. According to this law the educational establishments of the Canton were: primary schools, the teachers' seminary, the gymnasium, and the academy. Many improvements were also made in the internal arrangement of the schools, amongst the rest, by introducing geography, history, and drawing, besides the subjects fixed by the law of 1806, (religion, writing, reading, arithmetic, singing.) In 1816 the Lancastrian method of instruction was introduced into some of the public as well as private schools. This method was not long in use, but its introduction awakened a general public interest in the primary schools.

In 1825 a committee was appointed to draw up a plan of study for those who did not wish to enter the higher institutions of learning, but were not satisfied with the education received at the primary schools. The com-

mittee, after discussing the subject thoroughly, proposed the so-called *école industrielle*, similar to the real school of Germany. Though their deliberations produced no immediate result, they kept alive the interest of the public in education, and directed the attention to some important points in the educational system.

In 1830 the professors Gindroz, Monnard, and Pidou, were elected into the government council, and through their influence a new school code was adopted, which, with some slight modifications, is still in force. In 1833 a teachers' seminary for male teachers, and in 1837 a seminary for female teachers, was founded. The general organization of public instruction was finally regulated by the law of December 10, 1833, which, with other ordinances for each separate class of schools and institutions of learning, was revised in 1846, and again in 1861. There is great and general zeal manifested in this Canton for the advancement of education, and as Zurich in the German part of Switzerland, so Vaud takes the lead in educational matters in the French portion.

All the schools are under the general supervision of the cantonal government. The immediate superintendence is confided to a department of worship and education, presided over by a councilor of state, *conseiller d'état*. Subordinate to this department are the school inspectors and the school committees. The Canton is divided into three school-districts, for each of which there is a school inspector. Every inspector must visit all the schools of his district at least once a year, and in conjunction with the local school committees, superintend the schools. The inspectors are appointed by the council of state, and receive an annual salary of 2,000 francs, besides an allowance for travel and expenses, &c. They must submit an annual report to the supreme educational authorities of the Canton on the state of education in their respective districts. The immediate supervision of each school is in the hands of a committee chosen by the municipality, and consisting of three to five members. To be a member the age of 25 years is requisite. Half of the members must belong to the national church, which is protestant. The religious instruction is in the hands of the clergy. Several villages may have one school committee in common, and if the village be very large and it is thought desirable, several school committees may be appointed for one and the same town or village. In places where there are schools of both denominations, each denomination has its own school committee. In purely financial questions the municipality decides.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

In every village or town with more than twenty children, there must be at least one public primary school; villages with less than twenty children, may send their children to school to a village within half an hour's distance. In the secluded mountain-villages with twenty children, a school must be kept at least from November to June. No teacher can have more than sixty children; as soon as this number is exceeded, another

school must be established. In villages where there are less than eighty children, permission is given to establish a winter school for young children, besides the regular school. In villages with forty children, a special industrial school for girls is established, where girls are to be instructed in female-work at least during the winter; and in case there are sixty children, all the year round.

The course of instruction at the primary schools includes: religion, French, writing, arithmetic, geography, linear drawing, singing, history and constitution of Switzerland and especially of Vaud, elements of geometry and natural sciences, gymnastics for boys, and female-work for girls. The text-books are appointed by the school authorities. The religious instruction is given by the pastor of the village. If the parents desire it, children may be dispensed from it. With regard to the religious instruction the teachers' conference some years ago passed a resolution to confine it to a narrative of the historical facts in Holy Scripture, to dispense with the catechism, and introduce into the primary schools a selection of verses from the Bible, and standard hymns.

Children are obliged to attend school from the age of seven to sixteen. From the age of six to seven they may be sent to school, if by special desire of the parents, a permit to do so being obtained from the school committee. Children may attend private institutions, but a satisfactory guarantee is to be given that they enjoy as good advantages of education as in the public schools. The school committee every year must make out a list of all the children that are to attend school, and remind parents and guardians of their duty to send children to school. The teacher keeps a list of the absentees. Being absent four times a month without excuse, is punishable by fine or otherwise.

The conditions for becoming a teacher are: an examination by a special committee in all the subjects taught in the primary schools, besides pedagogics and methodics; and according to the manner in which they pass this examination, they get an unconditional or conditional certificate of qualification, (*brevet de capacité* and *brevet provisoire*.) Those who obtain the latter can only be teachers at a school of less than thirty scholars, and must pass another examination after a certain stated time. The same regulations apply to female teachers. Every vacancy is published in the papers, and the candidates are obliged to pass another examination, chiefly as regards their methods of instruction. One is then elected from among the number of candidates by the municipality and the school committee, and confirmed by the department of culture and education. The minimum salary of a teacher with an unconditional certificate of qualification, is 800 francs; with a conditional certificate, 500 francs. Besides these sums the teachers receive an annual school-fee from every scholar, which the municipality is charged with collecting; very poor children are exempt from it, and their fee is paid by the municipal authorities from the public funds. After five years' service, the teachers' salary is increased by fifty francs, and so on from five to five years, till after twenty years'

service the increase amounts to 200 francs. The salaries of female teachers range from 400 to 500 francs, and also three francs school-fee for every scholar; after five years' service they receive an increase of 35 francs, and so on from five to five years, till after twenty years' service the increase amounts to 150. All the male and female teachers are provided with a decent house, a garden, pasture land for a cow, and fuel. A certain sum of money may be paid in lieu of these, except fuel.

The teachers' conferences are either district conferences or "kreis" conferences, and are held annually. At the former, only those teachers are obliged to be present who possess a certificate of qualification; at the latter, those likewise, who, without having undergone any examination, are provisionally employed. The inspectors can be present.

Teachers' Seminaries.

For the education of the teachers required in the primary schools, there are in the Canton of Vaud two teachers' seminaries; one for male teachers, and one for female teachers. The first has three and the latter two divisions.

The course of instruction at the seminary for male teachers, is:

CLASSES.	III.	II.	I.
Religion, - - -	3	3	3
Anthropology, - - -	-	2	-
Pedagogics, - - -	-	-	4
Logic, - - - - -	-	-	2
French, - - - - -	5	5	4
Arithmetic, - - - -	4	3	3
Geography and Astronomy,	3	3	3
History, - - - - -	2	2	2
Physics and Meteorology,	2	-	-
Botany and Zoology, - -	-	3	-
Mineralogy and Chemistry,	-	-	2
Vocal Music, - - - -	5	4	4
Calligraphy, - - - -	4	4	2
Drawing, - - - - -	4	4	2
Geometry, - - - - -	2	2	2
Gymnastics, - - - - -	3	3	3

The same subjects, only not to the same extent, are taught in the seminary for female teachers, besides needle-work and domestic economy.

The faculty at the teachers' seminaries consists of one director, five teachers, (*instituteur*), one religious instructor, four special teachers, one teacher of gymnastics. At the female teachers' seminaries the special superintendence of the students is entrusted to a directress, (*surveillante*.) Candidates for teachers' places at one of the seminaries must undergo a theoretical and practical examination before a special committee. The director has a salary of 2,000 francs, the *surveillante* 800 francs. Other salaries range from 800 to 1,800 francs, according to the hours employed.

Candidates for admission to the institution must have completed their sixteenth year, and undergo an examination in reading, grammar, orthography, arithmetic, and geography. The cantonal department of education decides whether they are to be admitted or not. Those who have already been teachers, may, if they desire, attend the lectures.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

As a continuation and supplement of the primary schools, students may attend the so-called "*écoles secondaires*." The course of instruction in these includes: religion, French, German, writing, drawing, arithmetic, elements of algebra and geometry, history of Switzerland, general history, geography, astronomy, natural history, natural philosophy with special regard to agriculture and industry, book-keeping, music, gymnastics; and for girls, female-work. Several villages may have one secondary school in common. The teachers at these schools are styled *instituteur*, whilst those at the primary schools are only called *regent*. They receive a salary of 1,400 francs and free lodging. Vacancies are published in the papers, and the candidates must undergo an examination. One-fourth of the teachers' salaries is paid by the government. These schools have each two classes. Those who intend to enter must have completed the thirteenth year of their age, and be examined in all the subjects taught at the primary schools.

Middle industrial schools or communal colleges (*écoles moyennes ou industriels collèges communaux*), are schools which to a certain extent are the same as the lower classes of a cantonal school. Nearly the same subjects are taught, except that natural sciences are taught with special regard to industry and agriculture, as likewise drawing with regard to mechanical industry. These schools are exclusively maintained by the parishes. The Canton only grants aid, at most 7,200 francs, in case the number of pupils is at least twenty. The salary of a teacher, (there cannot be less than two,) is fixed at 1,160 francs. Candidates for vacant places are examined by a special committee.

The preparatory school for the cantonal gymnasium has three classes of one year each. The course of instruction includes: religion, reading, writing, elements of Latin, arithmetic, geography, drawing, music; and for the older scholars, military drill. Conditions of admission are: completion of the seventh year, and a thorough knowledge of reading and writing. The salaries of the teachers vary from 1,000 to 1,200 francs. Latin is mostly taught by a teacher of the gymnasium. The scholastic year commences August 20th, and ends July 10. The best scholars are rewarded with prizes, which consist of books.

To secondary education, as generally understood, belongs the Gymnasium, which in this Canton has been associated with the Academy, and in this account is classed with the University, to which it is a preparatory school.

III. SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

The commencement of superior instruction in Vaud can be traced back as far as the sixteenth century. The gymnasium, (*collège*), was founded May 27, 1540. The number of classes was originally five, with the following course of instruction: religion, French, Latin, Greek, writing, arithmetic, singing of psalms. The head-master was called *bachelier*

(*baccalaureus*) or gymnasiarch. The Academy was founded about that time; the instruction at that institution was confined to theology, Hebrew, Greek, catechetics, morals. Amongst the professors were men like Conrad Gessner, (1537-1541,) and Theodore de Beza, (1549-1559.) This academy was at that time the only French school of learning which represented the principles of the Reformation, and was much frequented by Germans, Frenchmen, and Englishmen, of protestant families. Both the gymnasium and the academy were reorganized in 1550. The gymnasium consisted of seven classes, of which the seventh was practically a primary school. In the highest class, authors like Herodotus, Zenophon, Plutarch, Cicero, and Livius, were read. Dialectics was a favorite subject of study. At the academy a professorship of belles lettres, (*artes*,) was founded; the "*professor artium*" lectured on Cicero, Aristotle and Hermogenes, the elements of arithmetic, the first four books of Euclid, the geography of Glareanus, the astronomy of Proclus, as also on some of Aristotle's works on natural philosophy. In 1594 a professorship of philosophy was founded. The academy underwent another reorganization in 1640, by which there were four professorships, that of the belles lettres being omitted.

The gymnasium had eight classes, and the study of Latin was already commenced in the lowest class, as the old law says, "in order that the scholars might at an early age already get a taste of Latin grammar." Besides the authors above-mentioned, Cæsar, Virgil, and Horace, were read; the instruction in Greek was confined to the grammar and the four gospels; and for theologians there was a course of Hebrew, according to Buxtorf.

Additional regulations were made in 1700; at the academy there were to be henceforth two professors of theology, one of Hebrew and exegesis, one of Greek and morals, one of eloquence, one of philosophy. To these was added in 1708, one professor of history, natural law, and private law. At the end of the eighteenth century the academy was divided into three departments, and numbered nine professors, one of whom was "*rector magnificus*." Before entering on the duties of their office, professors had to pass an examination, which was held at Berne.

About this time, (1700,) the gymnasium was reorganized; the eight classes were reduced to four, exclusively devoted to the study of the ancient languages. Besides the old gymnasium, another was founded for those who did not intend to enter any of the learned professions. Similar institutions were founded in several towns, mostly intended to prepare pupils for the highest class of the Gymnasium at Lausanne.

During the French revolution the so-called realistic studies were introduced at the academy, such as mathematics, natural sciences, agriculture, forest-culture, &c. But the whole was without any proper system, till by the law of 1806 an exact programme was laid down for every department. The literary studies embraced but two years, and the philosophical three, and the number of professorships was increased. To the gymnasium another Latin class was added. In 1837 the gymnasium was reorganized; it was divided into a lower division with five, and a higher one of four

classes. Besides the director, there are eleven teachers, and four assistant teachers of writing, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. The rules and regulations at present in force date from November 12, 1846.

The Gymnasium, in 1868, had six classes of one year each. Candidates for admission must be ten years of age, and pass an examination, which is held annually in July. The course of instruction is as follows:

CLASSES.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion, - - -	2	2	2	1	-	-
French, - - -	7	6	4	4	4	5
Latin, - - -	10	9	9	8	5	6
German, - - -	-	3	3	2	2	2
Greek, - - -	-	-	6	6	4	5
Arithmetic, - -	3	3	3	2	3	3
History, - - -	1	1	1	3	2	3
Geography, - -	2	2	2	3	3	3
Roman Antiquities,	-	-	-	-	1	1
Greek Antiquities, -	-	-	-	-	1	1
Natural Sciences, -	-	-	-	-	2	2
Writing, - - -	3	2	2	1	-	-
Drawing, - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
Stenography, - -	-	-	-	-	2	2
Vocal Music, - -	2	2	2	2	2	2

In French the three lower classes are devoted to grammar, reading, oral and written exercises; in the third class the niceties of the language are studied, and pieces are read with regard to logic, grammar, and taste; in the second class, general rhetoric is studied, and the readings from select authors continued; in the first, special rhetorics and rules of poetry are studied. In Latin, syntax is studied in the two lowest classes; the reading of authors commences in the fourth class with Eutropius, Aurelius Victor, Cornelius Nepos, Thaedrus; in the third class, Florus, Cæsar, (*de bello gallico*,) Ovid; in the second and first classes, Cæsar, (*de bello civili*,) Livius, Plinius, Cicero, (*epistles*,) Ovid, Virgil, Sallust, Horace. In Greek the syntax is only finished in the first class; the authors read are: Xenophon, Homer, Herodotus, Theocritus, and one of Plato's dialogues. The study of history is distributed in the following manner: class sixth, chronology of ancient history with short details of the most important facts; class five, chronology of the middle ages in the same way; class four, chronology of modern history; class three, ancient history and history of the middle ages in detail; class two, modern history in detail; class one, history of Switzerland. The study of geography is distributed as follows: classes six, five, and four, political geography; classes three and two, ancient geography; class one, astronomy, and physical geography. Instruction in mathematics does not go beyond the elementary portions; the same is the case with natural sciences. In the lower three classes, the "system of classes" (*classen-system*) prevails, and in the higher three, the "system of subjects," (*fach-system*.) Thus the teachers of the lowest class accompany their scholars through the lower three classes. The number of teachers is nine. The salary of class-teachers is 1,700 francs, whilst that of teachers of special subjects, (*fach-lehrer*,) varies between 1,600 and 1,800. The

assistant teachers of drawing, music, German, &c., receive from 500 to 1,200 francs. Vacancies are published in the papers, and the candidates pass an examination. The school-fee is 32 francs. Prizes are given to the best scholars at the end of the term.

The Academy, or University.

The Academy has three departments, viz : the department of literature and science, (*faculté des lettres et des sciences*), the department of theology, and the law department. The department of literature and science has the following course of instruction : Latin language and literature, Greek language and literature, French literature, German literature, archeology, Hebrew, philosophy and history of philosophy, history, political economy, history of social science, simple and applied mathematics, analytical and technical mechanics, physics.

The theological department embraces : exegesis, history of theology, practical theology, Hebrew, Chaldaic, Biblical history, dogmatics.

The law department includes : Roman law and its history, law of nations, (*völker recht*), law of Switzerland, law of the Canton of Vaud, criminal law, Vaud private law, philosophy of laws, &c.

The professors are either ordinary, extraordinary, or honorary ; the last title is only given to men who are eminent in some branch of science.

The number of professors in the department of literature and science, is fourteen, (eight for science, six for literature) ; in the department of theology, five, and in the law department, four. The ordinary professors are obliged to lecture fifteen hours per week. They are appointed by the government council, (*staats rath*;) if they themselves have solicited a place, they must pass an examination. The students are either ordinary or extraordinary. Applicants sixteen years of age, who have satisfactorily completed the three highest classes at the cantonal gymnasium, gone successfully through a college communal, and the highest class of the cantonal gymnasium, are admitted at once, whilst others must pass an examination in those subjects which are taught at the gymnasium. The scholars of the "écoles moyennes," who wish to enter the scientific division of the department of literature and science, need not pass an examination in the ancient languages, and Greek and Roman antiquities. The matriculation-fee is six francs, the lecture-fee twenty francs for the winter course, and twelve francs for the summer course.

Extraordinary students must be either sixteen or eighteen years old, according to whether they wish to attend the lectures in the department of literature and science, or the lectures in one of the two other departments. Their matriculation-fee is six francs ; the lecture-fee for one course, (one to two hours each week,) is six francs ; for three hours each week, ten francs ; for more than three hours each week, twelve francs ;—all the lecture-fees paid must not exceed 48 francs for all the lectures attended. The academical year commences October 20th and ends July 31st. The lectures are all in French, and each lasts 1½ hours. They

are distributed in such a manner that students in the department of literature and science, and in the law department, are enabled to finish their studies in three years, and those in the department of theology in four years. At the head of the academy is the rector, elected by the ordinary professors, from their own number, for three years, who receives an additional salary of 200 francs. The salaries of the professors range from 2,600 to 3,200 francs.

The Academy confers the *degree of "Bachelier,"* (Bachelier-des-lettres; des-sciences-mathématiques; Bachelier-des-sciences-physiques et naturelles,) and the *degree of "Licentiate,"* (Licencié-des-lettres; Licencié-des-sciences-mathématiques; Licencié-des-sciences-physiques; Licencié-des-sciences-naturelles; Licencié en théologie; Licencié en droit.) The examination for degrees is held by a jury of professors; it is written and oral. The written examination for the degree of "Bachelier-des-lettres," comprises: translation of a Latin piece into French, and *vice versa*; translation of a Greek piece into French; answering of questions in history of literature, and philosophy. At the oral examination for the same degree, passages from Latin, Greek, German, and French authors, must be explained, and questions answered in history of literature, philosophy, geography, physics, mathematics, chemistry, and natural history. Candidates for the degree of "Bachelier-des-sciences-physiques et naturelles," must, besides their special subject, also show a thorough knowledge of geography, history, philosophy, and French literature. From candidates for the degree of "Bachelier-des-sciences-mathématiques," a knowledge of the following subjects is required: arithmetic, elementary mathematics, integral and differential calculus, geometry, trigonometry, analytical and descriptive geometry, elements of mechanics, astronomy, physics, chemistry. Candidates for the degree "Licencié-des-lettres," have the following subjects for their written examination: a Latin composition in prose or verse; a French composition; translation of a French piece into Greek. The oral examination for the same degree, embraces the following subjects: explanation of passages from French, Latin, Greek, and German authors; history of French, Latin, Greek, and German literature; philosophy, and general history. The degree of "Licencié-des-sciences-mathématiques," is conferred on those who pass a written and oral examination in differential and integral calculus, theoretical mechanics, and astronomy. At the examination for the degree of "Licencié-des-sciences-physiques," the following subjects are demanded: physics, meteorology, organic, inorganic, and analytical chemistry; for the degree of "Licencié-des-sciences-naturelles": anatomy, physiology, zoology, botany, mineralogy, and geology; for the degree of "Licencié en théologie," or "en droit," the candidate must write a dissertation, and undergo a written and oral examination on the subjects taught in his department; and the former must also preach a trial-sermon.

The Academy in its various departments is resorted to by pupils from other Cantons, and other parts of Europe.

Special School of Science and Art.

Since 1853, there has existed at Lausanne a Technical Institution, (*école spéciale de la Suisse française pour l'industrie, les travaux publics et les constructions civiles*), intended for the education of engineers, mechanics, chemists, and architects. It has a three years' course. Students on entering must be at least seventeen years old, and pass an examination in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, descriptive geography, physics, chemistry, geometrical drawing. Only those who possess the degree of "Bachelier-des-sciences," are exempt from this examination. An examination-fee of 20 francs is to be paid. The lecture-fee is five hundred francs per annum.

There are eleven professors, and the following subjects are taught: higher mathematics, mineralogy, geology, theoretical mechanics, science of construction, architecture, general and technical physics and chemistry, technical mechanics, practical and descriptive geometry, construction of roads, bridges, canals, railroads, &c. To obtain the engineer-diploma, the student must pass an examination on the above studies.

Statistics.

In 1867, out of 32,765 children between the ages of 7 and 16 years, 25,524, (or 15,076 boys and 14,448 girls,) were in public schools.

Out of 728 regular primary schools, 524 were for boys and girls; 102 for boys; and 102 for girls. Besides these regular schools, there were 144 infant schools for children under 7 years, and 287 industrial schools for needle-work, &c. In all the primary schools, there were 552 male teachers, and 527 female teachers.

The total expense of primary instruction was 668,867 francs; of which 452,537 francs were paid by the Communes; 81,864 by parents, and 134,466 by the Cantonal government.

There were 6 secondary schools, with 190 pupils (boys and girls); and 5 girls' higher schools, with 170 pupils.

The twelve "colléges et écoles moyennes," (at Aubonne, Bex, Lausanne, Morges, Moudon, Nyon, Orbe, Payerne, Rolle, Ste. Croix, Vevay, Yverdon,) were attended by about 400 pupils. The government in 1866 contributed 54,066 francs towards these schools. In some places there are also higher girls' schools. At the "Institute Henchoz," in Chateau d'Oex, there were 16 scholars, (9 studying Latin.) In the Deaf and Dumb Institution" at Yverdon, there were 25 pupils, (12 boys, and 13 girls.)

At the Cantonal Gymnasium, there were 189 scholars, (169 from the Canton de Vaud, 16 from other Cantons, 4 foreigners.) At the "école spéciale," there were 30 ordinary, and 5 extraordinary students. The expenses of this school were 25,310 francs, and the income 27,486 francs.

At the Academy, there were in all 211 students, viz: 148 in the department of literature and science, 13 in the theological department, and 50 in the law department, (127 from the Canton de Vaud, 42 from other Cantons, and 42 foreigners.)

There are at Lausanne large museums and an excellent library.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ZUG.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

ZUG is said to be the original seat of the ancient Tugeni, and was successively ruled by the Romans, the Franks, the Dukes of Zähringen, and the Dukes of Austria. In 1352, it was taken by the Swiss, and joined the confederation as a separate canton, under the superintendence of the Dukes of Austria, which arrangement ceased entirely in the fifteenth century. In the year 1847, it joined the seceding cantons. The present constitution dates from the year 1814. In 1860, there were 19,667 inhabitants, (on an area of 85 square miles,) mostly of German origin, and all, but 622, of catholic religion.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The law of October 28, 1850, on the organization of education in the canton, commences with the following sentence:

“The education of the young is the sacred duty of parents, and of the cantonal and local authorities, as also of the church. Its aim is, to produce moral and religious men in the sense of the catholic church, to make of them good and sensible citizens, and prepare them for practical life.”

The educational establishments of the canton are: elementary schools, secondary schools, and the cantonal school. All the schools of the canton are divided into school districts, each of which is superintended by a school committee.

I. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

These are divided into primary schools and repetition schools. The course of instruction in the primary schools includes religion, Bible history, reading, writing, grammar, rudiments of composition, arithmetic, history of Switzerland, geography, drawing, and singing; female work for the girls. The clergyman of the village has charge of the religious instruction. As a general rule, the school lasts forty-two weeks during the year; the number of hours per week varies from eighteen to twenty-five. The primary school course embraces six years, and the repetition school at least one year and a half. No one is permitted to leave the school until he has thoroughly mastered all the subjects taught. In order to obtain a teacher's place the following conditions are required: the candidate must be of age, a catholic, have a good moral character, and pass a satisfactory examination, which extends to all the branches taught in the primary and secondary schools. After having successfully passed this examination the candidate receives a certificate of qualification for the period of one

Special School of Science and Art.

Since 1853, there has existed at Lausanne a Technical Institution, (*école spéciale de la Suisse française pour l'industrie, les travaux publics et les constructions civiles*), intended for the education of engineers, mechanics, chemists, and architects. It has a three years' course. Students on entering must be at least seventeen years old, and pass an examination in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, descriptive geography, physics, chemistry, geometrical drawing. Only those who possess the degree of "Bachelier-des-sciences," are exempt from this examination. An examination-fee of 20 francs is to be paid. The lecture-fee is five hundred francs per annum.

There are eleven professors, and the following subjects are taught: higher mathematics, mineralogy, geology, theoretical mechanics, science of construction, architecture, general and technical physics and chemistry, technical mechanics, practical and descriptive geometry, construction of roads, bridges, canals, railroads, &c. To obtain the engineer-diploma, the student must pass an examination on the above studies.

Statistics.

In 1867, out of 32,765 children between the ages of 7 and 16 years, 25,524, (or 15,076 boys and 14,448 girls,) were in public schools.

Out of 728 regular primary schools, 524 were for boys and girls; 102 for boys; and 102 for girls. Besides these regular schools, there were 144 infant schools for children under 7 years, and 287 industrial schools for needle-work, &c. In all the primary schools, there were 552 male teachers, and 527 female teachers.

The total expense of primary instruction was 668,867 francs; of which 452,537 francs were paid by the Communes; 81,864 by parents, and 134,466 by the Cantonal government.

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to four years. After this term has elapsed, the board of education can, if it is thought desirable, subject him to a second examination, or simply prolong his certificate, if his success in teaching shows him to be amply qualified for his duties. The teachers are chosen by the parishes, which also fix the salary. If a parish neglect to fill a place for four weeks after the vacancy has occurred, the cantonal board can appoint a teacher provisionally for the scholastic year.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The rules and regulations in force with regard to secondary schools, date from September 14, 1860. The course of instruction includes: religion, German, French, mathematics, geography, history, natural sciences, book-keeping, drawing, calligraphy, and singing. These schools have mostly two courses, with a head-master for each. The cantonal, real, and industrial school embraces three courses, in which, besides the subjects above-mentioned, Italian, physics, and chemistry, are taught. The number of teachers is three to four. The minimum salary of a secondary school teacher is 1,200 francs; the teachers at the industrial school receive from 1,600 to 1,800 francs and free lodging; the rector receives 300 francs in addition. The government pays two-thirds of the teachers' salaries. To enter the secondary, or industrial school, a maturity examination in the studies of the primary school is required.

The great council, (*grosse rath*), gives every year 500 francs for the education of teachers; the stipend is granted for three years, and obliges the student to enter some seminary recommended by the board of education. For every year of the stipend, the student must serve two as a teacher.

The law organizing repetition schools dates from August 21, 1863. They are to be established in every town and village, and have a three years' course, of eight months in each year, and three hours per week.

The gymnasium, in connection with the cantonal school in Zug, has three classes, (each with two divisions,) styled grammar, syntax, and rhetoric. There are three professors, who instruct in Latin and Greek. The remaining instruction, as far as required, the students receive at the secondary and industrial division of the same cantonal school.

There are annual teachers' conferences; one for teachers of elementary schools, and one for teachers of superior schools. There is also a teachers' library, towards which regular contributions are paid by the government, and by the teachers themselves.

Statistics.

In 1867, there were in operation, 50 primary schools, with 2,215 pupils; 19 repetition schools, with 411 pupils; 5 secondary schools, with 111 pupils; 1 cantonal school, with an industrial division, with 23 pupils, and a gymnasial division, with 21 pupils. In the 50 primary schools, there were 54 male and 31 female teachers. Total school expenditure was 28,961 francs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ZURICH.

AREA.—POPULATION.—HISTORY.

THE canton of Zurich, on an area of 685 English square miles, on the 1st January, 1861, had 267,641 inhabitants. It is generally conceded that Zurich (Turicum) was founded by the Romans during the early days of the empire; the city and the surrounding country became part of Charlemagne's, and later of the German empire. Under the Saxon and the Swabian emperors, Zurich was a fief of the dukes of Swabia and the counts of Thurgovia, later of the counts of Zähringen. Frederick II., in 1218, made Zurich a free city. The building of some fortifications led to a feud between the citizens and the clergy, the nobility taking the part of the latter. The consequence was that Zurich formed a league with Schwyz and Uri, which, however, only lasted three years. During the following period, Zurich enjoyed great privileges from the German emperors, and even fought on their side during the first years of the Swiss war. One party, however, strongly favored a union with the Swiss cantons, and by a preconcerted arrangement on the night of February 2, 1350, either murdered or drove away all of the conservative party who opposed this union. Soon after Zurich became one of the Swiss cantons. In Zurich, Zwingli inaugurated the Swiss church reformation, and at the same time instituted a parish school. At the outbreak of the French revolution, Zurich strongly opposed the French revolutionary ideas. In 1795, the canton was the chief theatre of the war between the French and the Austro-Russian army. During the war of the confederation, (Sonderbundskrieg,) Zurich was on the side of the Protestants and Federalists.

The present constitution dates from November 22, 1830. According to it, all adult citizens of 20 years of age enjoy the franchise, and elect nearly all the members of a great council of 212 members, except a small number elected by the council itself. This council appoints an executive body of 19 members, who hold office for six years, and is presided over by the burgomaster. Zurich is the great manufacturing canton of Switzerland. The cotton manufacture employs about 27,000 hands, and the silk manufacture 18,000. The export of silk goods annually amounts to forty-five millions of francs. There are 34 dye-works and calico printing-works, 12 woolen factories, 51 tanneries, &c. The machine shops of Zurich, of which there are 8, are among the most famous of Central Europe. Zurich has 12 publishing houses, 18 print-

ing-offices and 10 lithographic establishments. In the rural districts large numbers of excellent cattle are raised, and considerable quantities of butter and cheese are exported.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The school system of Zurich, as revised in 1859, is one of the most comprehensive and efficient of the Swiss cantons, as the following exhibit, taken from the official annual report of the canton (*Rechenschaftsbericht des Regierungsrathes*) for 1867 will show :

I. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. (*Volkschulen.*)

The canton of Zurich is divided into 11 districts (*Bezirk*), for civil as well as school purposes—corresponding to some extent to our division into counties—subdivided into 162 subdistricts (*schulkreise*) as regards the primary schools, and 59 subdistricts as regards the higher elementary or intermediate schools (called in the language of the law “secondary schools.”) There are :

(1.) *Primary schools*.—Of these there are 366, (279 ungraded and 87 graded,) with 31,069 scholars. In most cases a so-called repetition school is connected with the primary school, in which the teacher out of the usual school-hours gives 8 hours instruction per week to children who have left the primary schools; the number of scholars in these repetition schools is 7,906. Singing is likewise taught out of the usual school-hours, and 15,615 scholars were instructed. The primary course covers six (6) years, and the repetition course three (3) years. The total number of primary school teachers is 550. The number of female industrial schools is 336, with 328 teachers and 9,298 scholars.

(2.) *Higher elementary* (called secondary) *schools*.—Of these there are 59, with 2,313 scholars (1,659 boys and 654 girls) and 88 teachers.

(3.) *Normal schools and Teachers' seminary*.—There is one primary normal school [*Nebungsschule*] with one teacher and 87 scholars; one normal repetition school with 15 scholars; one normal singing school with 40 pupils; the cantonal Teachers' Seminary at Kussnacht, with which these three normal schools are connected, numbers 138 students.

(4.) *Private schools*.—Of private schools corresponding to the public primary and secondary (higher elementary) schools there are 18, with 318 scholars and 63 teachers. Of private industrial schools, drawing schools, &c., there are 45, with 914 scholars and 67 teachers. All these last-mentioned schools are under government inspection, and also receive subsidies from government.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The cantonal school (*cantonschule*) consists of two (2) divisions, viz. : the gymnasium, for classical studies, and the real school (*industrieschule*) for practical studies. The gymnasium has a higher and lower division, with 7 classes and 193 scholars; the real school has 4 classes, with 149 scholars; total, 342 pupils.

Under this head must be classed the higher schools of Winterthur. This town, of 6,523 inhabitants, is one of the wealthiest and thriftiest towns of Switzerland. Besides the primary schools, it possesses the following institutions of a higher grade, which are also largely attended by scholars from other cantons. The school of industry (*industrie schule*), a kind of real school of 6 classes, with 127 scholars; a *preparatory* school with 24 scholars; an *intermediate* school of 8 classes with 20 scholars; a gymnasium of 7 classes with 83 scholars; a high girls' school of 4 classes with 126 scholars. All these schools receive a government subsidy, but the greater amount of the expenses is met by the town of Winterthur.

III. SUPERIOR SCHOOLS.

The University of Zurich, with 4 faculties, viz.: theology, law, medicine and philosophy. The number of professors is 72, and the number of students in 1867-'68, 246 (54 student of theology, 39 law students, 88 students of medicine and 65 students of philosophy.)

IV. SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

1. The Federal Polytechnic School is described elsewhere in Report on Scientific and Industrial Schools.

2. The agricultural school with a model farm; it has a two years' course. The number of teachers is 10, and the number of scholars 26.

3. The school of veterinary surgery, with a 3 years' course. The number of teachers is 7, and the number of scholars 26.

V. STATISTICS.

The total of schools and attendance in 1867 was as follows: 702 primary schools of all kinds, with 50,580 pupils; 2 gymnasiums, each with real classes, and 595 pupils; 3 technical schools, with 325 pupils; 2 high schools for girls, with 275 pupils; 63 private schools, with 1,232 pupils; 3 superior and special schools, with 398 pupils.

The capital of school funds in 1867 was as follows:

Primary school fund, 5,371,809 francs; Special fund, 245,524 francs; Secondary school fund, 491,122 francs; Special school fund, 46,968 francs; University and other funds, 2,000,000 francs; Total, 8,155,423 francs.

The Cantonal government contributed towards salaries and other school expenses in 1867, as follows:

Salary of primary teachers, 266,171.83 francs; Salary of secondary teachers, 14,953 francs; Salary of temporary teachers, 2,707 francs; Pensions of teachers, 14,980 francs; Special aid (*Aeufnung*), 11,830 francs; Diminution of local deficits, 12,402 francs; Subsidies to poor school districts, 10,347 francs; Building of school-houses, 21,200 francs; Secondary schools, 76,558 francs; Industrial schools, 6,160 francs; Schools of Winterthur, 4,000 francs; Schools of Zurich, 4,000 francs; Scholarships in Universities, 7,290 francs; Scholarships in Cantonal school, 2,810 francs; Scholarships in Winterthur High school, 510 francs; Scholarships in Polytechnic school, 560 francs; Scholarships for travel, 1,850 francs; Scholarships preparatory for gymnasium, 400 francs; Scholarships in teachers' Seminary, 5,520 francs; Scholarships in secondary schools, 3,000 francs; Cadet corps, 1,345 francs; Annual grant for botanic garden, &c., 14,000 francs; Total, 485,533 francs.

We give on the following page the latest statistics of schools, teachers and pupils in all the Cantons of Switzerland.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWITZERLAND.

I. PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

There are 7,149 elementary schools, with 363,682 scholars and 7,190 teachers. In most of the Cantons there are repetition schools, infant schools, and female industrial schools; in some also adult courses. There are 59 higher elementary schools (district-schools,) with 2,148 scholars.

II. SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

There are 177 real-schools of different grades, with 7,039 scholars; 7 progymnasias, with 328 scholars; 12 gymnasias, with 1,619 scholars; 17 cantonal schools (the highest grade of secondary schools, each comprising a gymnasium and a real-school,) with 3,794 scholars; making a total of 213 secondary schools, with 12,780 scholars.

III. SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

There are 3 complete universities (each with 4 faculties, viz., theology, law, medicine, philosophy)—Basle, Berne, and Zurich, with a total of 631 students and 126 professors; 2 academies (with 3 faculties each, viz., theology, law and philosophy,) with a total of 405 students; 2 faculties of theology, with 24 students (at Soleure and Lucerne,) and 2 law-faculties (at Fribourg and Sion,) with 36 students; making the total number of 234 theological students, 225 law students, 255 medical students, and 370 students of philosophy.

IV. SPECIAL AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

The Federal Polytechnic School at Zurich, in a building erected at the sole expense of the Canton of Zurich (over \$500,000), with extensive laboratories, and collections for illustrating every department of instruction, employs 57 professors, masters and teachers, in seven schools, viz., of architecture and construction, civil engineering, mechanics and machinery, industrial chemistry, forestry and rural economy, moral and political science, and the fine arts. The Federal Assembly makes an annual appropriation of \$40,000 towards the expenses of this school, on account of its benefits to the industrial interests of Switzerland. Besides this Industrial university, there are:

- 1 Military institute at Biere.
- 1 Technical institute at Lausanne.
- 90 Industrial schools for girls.
- 1 School for watchmakers at St. Imier.
- 1 School for weavers at Trogen.
- 1 School of drawing and wood-carving at Brienz.
- 7 Agricultural and industrial schools for boys.
- 15 Seminaries for male primary teachers.
- 7 Male normal primary courses.
- 3 Seminaries for female primary school teachers.
- 20 Orphan schools.
- 10 Infant schools or kindergärten.
- 34 Rescue institutions for neglected children, with 1,543 pupils.
- 2 Institutions for deaf-mutes.
- 1 Institute for the blind.
- 1 Institute for feeble-minded children.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

HISTORY—AREA—GOVERNMENT.

THE Kingdom of Italy, territorially, is an expansion of the Kingdom of Sardinia, which, until the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, was known by the name of the Duchy of Savoy. Savoy was anciently inhabited by the Allobroges. It was under Roman dominion till 400, belonged to Burgundy till 530, to France till 879, to Arles till 1000, when it had its own counts, and in 1416, was erected into a Duchy by the German Emperor Sigismund. The House of Savoy obtained, in 1408, possession of Genoa, and in 1418, the principality of Piedmont, and in 1482, by marriage, a right to the Kingdom of Cyprus, and hence the title of Kings of Cyprus and Jerusalem. The peace of Utrecht added Sicily, with the royal title to Savoy; but in 1720, the new king, Victor Amadeus II., was obliged to receive Sardinia in lieu of that island; and to that island, in 1798, the title and dominion of the House of Savoy and Kingdom of Sardinia was confined by France, which took possession, by cession, of all the continental dominions. In 1806, Piedmont and Genoa were made part of the French empire. In 1814, Emanuel I. returned to Turin, his continental possessions having been restored by the peace of Paris,—half of Savoy remaining with France till November 20, 1815. By the treaty of Villafranca, July 11, 1856, and the peace of Zurich of the same year, the Kingdom of Sardinia obtained Western Lombardy; afterwards, through the universal suffrage, the Duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, and part of the Papal States; and in 1861, the Neapolitan States and Sicily; and by the peace of Prague, August 23, 1866, the remaining districts of Lombardy, with Venetia.

According to an enumeration of 1864, and the accession of population in 1866, the total population of the Kingdom of Italy at the end of 1866, was 24,149,766 inhabitants, on an area of 107,961 English square miles. This population was distributed among the provinces as formerly designated as follows, viz:

Provinces.	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.
Continental Sardinian States, -	15,373	3,780,967
Island of Sardinia, - - -	9,547	578,115
Lombardy, - - - - -	7,765	2,764,919
Venetia and Eastern Lombardy, -	9,177	2,576,185
Emilia, - - - - -	8,821	2,044,108
Umbria and the Marches, - - -	5,997	1,393,824
Tuscany, - - - - -	9,150	1,812,253
Neapolitan States, - - - -	31,621	7,029,273
Island of Sicily, - - - - -	10,510	2,302,168
Total, - - - - -	107,961	24,149,766

The present constitution of the Kingdom of Italy is an expansion of the *statuto fondamentale del regno*, granted by King Charles Albert to his Sardinian subjects, March 4, 1848. By this charter, the executive power of the state belongs exclusively to the sovereign, and is exercised by him through responsible ministers, viz: 1. Minister of the Interior. 2. Minister of Public Instruction. 3. Minister of Foreign Affairs. 4. Minister of Public Works. 5. Minister of War. 6. Minister of Marine. 7. Minister of Commerce, Industry, and Agriculture. 8. Minister of Finance. 9. Minister of Justice and Ecclesiastical Affairs.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The princes of the House of Savoy began as early as 1729 to withdraw the supervision of secondary schools from the religious orders, and provision was made for educating teachers of this class of schools in a college connected with the university. In 1772, a decree was published establishing primary schools, but with special reference to preparing pupils for the Latin schools, and confining instruction beyond that object to the Italian language. In the legislation we find the germ of a well-composed council of public instruction.

The occupation of Sardinia by the republican government of France, as well as by the empire of Napoleon, gave a decided impulse to popular, as well as to higher education. Every township was compelled by law to establish a common school for boys, in order to give them instruction in reading, writing, and the first elements of Italian, French, and Latin grammar. But on the restoration of the old government, in 1814, all laws of this character were abolished, and public schools were regarded as revolutionary and dangerous. In 1821, an attempt was made to re-establish public schools, and a decree was issued by which all the chief boroughs and all townships were obliged to establish free common schools. But owing to clerical opposition to schools not subject to their management, but little progress was made, except in establishing a few infant schools, until 1844, when a normal school for teachers was instituted in Turin.

Under the impulse of school movements in other countries,—in Switzerland, Germany, and France,—the government of Sardinia, under the new constitution granted by Charles Albert, entered on a career of school organization and renovation which has finally broken up the old order of things. A commission, composed of Dr. Luigi Parola, and Prof. Vincenzo Botta, (since a resident in New York city,) visited the principal states of Europe, and published in 1851, a voluminous report on Public Instruction in Germany, with reference to the improvement of public schools of every grade in Sardinia.

A Supreme Council of Public Instruction was created, and attached to a Minister; primary schools, of a higher and lower grade; secondary schools, embracing classical and technical schools, and royal and national colleges; and a new organization of the universities, were instituted.* The

* Public Instruction in Sardinia, by Prof. V. Botta, in *Am. Journal of Education*, for 1857.

law of 1848 was revised in the light of ten years experience in 1857; when the political changes of Italy soon led to an extension of the principles of the new organization over nearly the entire territory and population of Italy, under the new law of November 13, 1859.* For a comprehensive survey of the system as now established, we are indebted to Prof. Ruggiero Bonghi, member of the Supreme Council of Public Instruction.

I. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Public Instruction throughout the Kingdom of Italy is organized and administered in conformity to the law of November 13, 1859, which, though subsequently modified in many particulars, constitutes the framework of the present system.

Public and Private Instruction.

We call that instruction public, which is regulated by the public authorities (state or municipal) according to law, and that private, which is given and administered by private persons. To be public, instruction need not be at the expense of the general government, although the law imposes on municipalities a part or even the whole burden of the expenses of many public institutions, as will be shown hereafter. Their public character is derived from the fact that public officers are authorized to intervene in their government, not that the treasury defrays their expenses.

Municipalities and provinces are at full liberty to found new schools besides those which the law requires them to maintain. These municipal and provincial establishments partake of the character both of public and private institutions. With respect to subjects and methods of instruction, they are as free as any private establishment; but in the selection of teachers, they are subject to special governmental regulations. The ministerial supervision of institutions having a private character extends only to morality, health, political principles, and public order.

The public administrative authorities are constituted as follows:

Ministry of Public Instruction.

A minister is appointed by the King to take control of public instruction, and superintend private teaching.

The minister is assisted by a secretary-general, changing with him, whose office is consequently a political one; a Supreme Council of Public Instruction; and a legal counselor.

The secretary has no prerogatives determined by law, but is invested with as much power as the minister himself, according to the degree of confidence the latter thinks fit to place in him.

The Department of Public Instruction is organized in three divisions, each with its own chief, (*capo di divisione*;) each division is divided into two sections, each with its own superintendent.

* To Tuscany by the Tuscan Government, March 10, 1860; to the Neapolitan provinces by the law of the Lieutenantcy, February 10, 1861; to Sicily by the Prodictatorial Government, October 17, 1860.

First, there is the financial and economical division, to which is intrusted the management of the funds for public instruction.

To the second division is assigned the fine arts, antiquities, conservatories of music, academies, scientific and literary bodies, public libraries not belonging to universities, and the public archives.

To the third and last division is intrusted the supervision of the university instruction, the practical schools for engineers, the schools of veterinary medicine, and institutions and schools of every kind for superior instruction, not connected with the universities.

The secondary and primary instruction instead of a separate division, has a central superintendent, (*provveditorato centrale*), created by a decree of September 27, 1867, who has, in virtue of a by-law of October 20th of the same year, the direction of all the business concerning the last two kinds of instruction. But even this decree, recent as it is, fails to secure a perfect execution; for there are now two central boards of supervision for secondary and primary instruction respectively composed of six superintendents, two of first, two of second, and two of third class. The first two direct the administration in its two sections, and the last four aid them according to the various scientific and literary requirements of the different branches of instruction.

The decree constituting the central supervision is not precise in its language, but its aim is to provide a board, upon which secondary and primary instruction, in all their branches and interests, should depend. Its main duty is individually to pay attention to the intellectual progress of the teachers, and to decide collectively:

- (a.) On the interpretation of laws and by-laws.
- (b.) On the regulations to be presented to the minister, with a view to further public studies, and to diffuse elementary and public instruction.
- (c.) On the nominations, promotions, and transfers of public teachers from one place to another.
- (d.) On the discipline of public schools.
- (e.) On the distribution of subsidies to teachers of elementary and popular schools.

This board of supervision, (*provveditori*), informs the minister of the best works published by or for the use of teachers, and proposes the prizes to be allotted to them.

Whenever matters concerning primary or secondary instruction are being discussed in the supreme council, it appoints one of its members to attend the sittings of that body.

The Supreme Council of Public Instruction.

A Supreme Council of Public Instruction is constituted under the presidency of the minister, who must in many cases consult this body. It is composed of fourteen ordinary members, and seven extraordinary, all of whom are appointed by the Chief of the State. The former fourteen are entitled to a salary of 2,000 francs a year, and are usually

chosen from public professors, but five of them at least must not belong to this class.

The functions of the Supreme Council are advisory, administrative, and judicial.

(a.) *Advisory.*—The council must be consulted :

(1.) Whenever a new law concerning public instruction is to be brought into parliament, or a by-law published by the minister.

(2.) Whenever the budgets of public instruction are to be settled in matters concerning cabinets, museums, and the material aids of teaching belonging to universities.

(3.) Whenever contests between the school authorities arise.

(4.) Whenever applications are made by candidates for professorships in the royal universities.

(5.) On the neglect and offences of professors of the secondary (classical and technical) and normal schools, when such offences deserve degradation. The defendants have the right to be heard either in writing, or orally.

The opinion of the council may be consulted by the minister in all matters touching the intellectual and administrative management of public instruction.

(b.) *Administrative.*—The Council

(1.) Proposes to the minister those provisions which are deemed beneficial to the progress of instruction.

(2.) Examines and approves of the text-books for secondary and primary instruction, and procures the examination of the works published by university professors, as well as of those sent to it for the same purpose by the minister of public instruction.

(3.) Examines the claims of those persons, who, not having stood the test prescribed by law for the various public, municipal, and private schools, wish to be authorized to teach.

(4.) Keeps account of the vacancies that occur in the university professorships, and either proposes a candidate to the minister, or, when called upon by him, opens a competition, and chooses the examiners. It also appoints the members of the examining boards for the general university examinations.

(c.) *Judicial.*—The Council

(1.) Decides each case relating to university professors and collegiate doctors charged with neglect or offence, when such offences deserve degradation, or an interdiction of more than two months. A shorter prohibition may be decreed, in urgent cases, by the minister, without previously consulting the council; but the minister is obliged to account for his actions, and abide by its resolutions.

(2.) Judges, like a court of appeal, of the expulsion, or temporary exclusion from the courses, inflicted on university students by their rectors.

(3.) Presents, every five years, to the minister, a general report on the condition of all the branches of instruction. In order to accomplish this

First, there is the financial and economical division, to which is intrusted the management of the funds for public instruction.

To the second division is assigned the fine arts, antiquities, conservatories of music, academies, scientific and literary bodies, public libraries not belonging to universities, and the public archives.

To the third and last division is intrusted the supervision of the university instruction, the practical schools for engineers, the schools of veterinary medicine, and institutions and schools of every kind for superior instruction, not connected with the universities.

The secondary and primary instruction instead of a separate division, has a central superintendent, (*provveditorato centrale*), created by a decree of September 27, 1867, who has, in virtue of a by-law of October 20th of the same year, the direction of all the business concerning the last two kinds of instruction. But even this decree, recent as it is, fails to secure a perfect execution; for there are now two central boards of supervision for secondary and primary instruction respectively composed of six superintendents, two of first, two of second, and two of third class. The first two direct the administration in its two sections, and the last four aid them according to the various scientific and literary requirements of the different branches of instruction.

The decree constituting the central supervision is not precise in its language, but its aim is to provide a board, upon which secondary and primary instruction, in all their branches and interests, should depend. Its main duty is individually to pay attention to the intellectual progress of the teachers, and to decide collectively:

- (a.) On the interpretation of laws and by-laws.
- (b.) On the regulations to be presented to the minister, with a view to further public studies, and to diffuse elementary and public instruction.
- (c.) On the nominations, promotions, and transfers of public teachers from one place to another.
- (d.) On the discipline of public schools.
- (e.) On the distribution of subsidies to teachers of elementary and popular schools.

This board of supervision, (*provveditori*), informs the minister of the best works published by or for the use of teachers, and proposes the prizes to be allotted to them.

Whenever matters concerning primary or secondary instruction are being discussed in the supreme council, it appoints one of its members to attend the sittings of that body.

The Supreme Council of Public Instruction.

A Supreme Council of Public Instruction is constituted under the presidency of the minister, who must in many cases consult this body. It is composed of fourteen ordinary members, and seven extraordinary, all of whom are appointed by the Chief of the State. The former fourteen are entitled to a salary of 2,000 francs a year, and are usually

chosen from public professors, but five of them at least must not belong to this class.

The functions of the Supreme Council are advisory, administrative, and judicial.

(a.) *Advisory.*—The council must be consulted :

(1.) Whenever a new law concerning public instruction is to be brought into parliament, or a by-law published by the minister.

(2.) Whenever the budgets of public instruction are to be settled in matters concerning cabinets, museums, and the material aids of teaching belonging to universities.

(3.) Whenever contests between the school authorities arise.

(4.) Whenever applications are made by candidates for professorships in the royal universities.

(5.) On the neglect and offences of professors of the secondary (classical and technical) and normal schools, when such offences deserve degradation. The defendants have the right to be heard either in writing, or orally.

The opinion of the council may be consulted by the minister in all matters touching the intellectual and administrative management of public instruction.

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(1.) Proposes to the minister those provisions which are deemed beneficial to the progress of instruction.

(2.) Examines and approves of the text-books for secondary and primary instruction, and procures the examination of the works published by university professors, as well as of those sent to it for the same purpose by the minister of public instruction.

(3.) Examines the claims of those persons, who, not having stood the test prescribed by law for the various public, municipal, and private schools, wish to be authorized to teach.

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(2.) Judges, like a court of appeal, of the expulsion, or temporary exclusion from the courses, inflicted on university students by their rectors.

(3.) Presents, every five years, to the minister, a general report on the condition of all the branches of instruction. In order to accomplish this

object, the annual reports of the inspectors, and authorities presiding over public instruction, must be communicated to the council.

The principal part of these duties were assigned to the council by the law of November, 1859; a few were added by the decree of October 20, 1867. In the interval, the members of the supreme council had been increased to thirty, by the decree of September, 1865, which abolished the two separate supreme councils at Naples and Palermo. The council itself, by a decree of December, 1868, has been re-constituted into three separate committees, for superior, secondary, and primary instruction, respectively. The decree of Sept., 1867, re-established the council in its present form.

Inspectors and Legal Counselors.

The law of 1859 appointed three general inspectors; one for the university or superior instruction, another for the secondary classical instruction, and a third for the technical, primary, and normal instruction. Under these were two inspectors for the secondary classical schools, and one for the normal and technical. These last were intrusted with all the duties of superintending the public session. The general inspectors, however, were entitled to a seat in the meetings of the supreme council, and were the organs of the minister for all provisions relating to their own departments. But, in 1862, the office of general inspector was abolished.

In order to aid the supreme council in the discharge of its duties, and the minister himself in the application of the laws, a legal counselor is added to the ministry. He gives legal advice on applications made by students for exceptional admission to courses and examinations; for exemption from examinations and payment of fees; and generally on all questions concerning the interpretation and application of laws and rules. When especially ordered by the minister, he consults the council in cases of neglect and offence, which include interdiction, or degradation of university professors; and attends the meetings of the council, whenever defendants choose to plead before it. The council is expected to follow his advice on questions brought before it by students expelled, or temporarily excluded from schools.

Provincial Administration.

By virtue of the law of 1859, in every chief town of a province there were established a royal purveyor, (*providitore*), or superintendent for the classical and technical secondary schools, a royal inspector for the primary schools, and a school council.

(1.) The Italian provinces are sixty-eight in number, but they differ very much from each other in territorial extent and population. Every chief town of a district (*circondario*) is provided with an inspector, who is the representative of the provincial superintendent and inspector.

After many variations, the decree of September 22, 1867, provides that there shall be in every province, a school council, and a superintendent of studies (*providitore*); in every *circondario* an inspector, and a school delegate in every *mandamento*.

(2.) In Italy the *circondarii* number 274. These divisions are rather political than administrative. Each *province* is governed by a prefect, (*prefetto*,) and each *circondario* by a *sottoprefetto*.

(3.) There are 1,616 *mandamenti*, which are neither political nor administrative, but judicial officers.

The school council is composed of the *prefetto* of the province, who presides; of the provincial superintendent (*providitore*,) who is the vice-president; and of six members, two of whom are appointed by the deputation (the executive power) of the provincial-civil administration, two by the town council, (municipal deputation,) and two by the minister.

The members nominated by the elective councils, (provincial and municipal,) hold their office for three years, but can be re-elected. They depend upon the prefect, who is intrusted with the general direction and supervision of all the private as well as public schools, and upon the provincial superintendent (*providitore*,) who has the care of all the schools in his district, while the school council enforces the laws and rules relative to the secondary, elementary, and normal schools of the province.

The school council orders extraordinary inspections of the schools, and, in urgent cases, has the power to close them, but in that case, it must immediately inform the minister. It effects, by appeals to municipal corporations and charitable institutions, the opening of infant asylums, of evening holiday schools, and popular circulating libraries. It examines and judges of the expense of public educational establishments, appoints by its own authority male and female teachers to municipal primary schools, whenever municipalities fail to do it, and obliges the latter to pay the salaries fixed by law, should they have voted lower ones.

The school council has many other special duties, relative to the welfare of every kind of school, with the exception of the universities, in its own province.

The provincial superintendent (*providitore*) acts as a link between the provincial council, the schools, and the minister; visits public and private institutions; and takes all ordinary measures to see that they are properly conducted.

The inspector of the *circondario* is generally an agent of the provincial school council, and provincial superintendent of studies, who has particular care of the elementary and popular schools in his *circondario*.

In the *mandamento* the delegate is the representative of the provincial council, and fulfills the duties intrusted to him by the said council, by the superintendent of the schools, and by the minister.

This organization is too recent to admit of being examined by the test of experience. It has, however, never been discussed in parliament, but as is generally thought by experts, it cannot remain unaltered. An efficient inspection of schools is not possible with it, although, in some instances, there are many more officials than are wanted. When a minister actually wishes to be informed accurately about schools, he is obliged to assign their inspection to a university professor, or other expert.

Table of Officers and their Salaries (Central Administration).

Number.	Individuals.	Salaries.
	I. Officers in the Ministry :	<i>Liras.</i>
	Minister, - - - - -	20,000
	Secretary-General, - - - - -	8,000
3	Chiefs of Divisions, - - - - -	18,000
2	Chiefs of Sections, (1st class,) - - - - -	3,000
4	" " (2d class,) - - - - -	16,000
10	Secretaries, (1st class,) - - - - -	85,000
10	" (2d class,) - - - - -	30,000
10	Assistants, (1st class,) - - - - -	22,000
10	" (2d class,) - - - - -	18,000
10	" (3d class,) - - - - -	15,000
9	" (4th class,) - - - - -	10,800
	Temporary Clerks, - - - - -	2,700
	Door-keepers, &c., - - - - -	14,000
		218,500
	II. Superior Council :	
	Central Supt., and Members of the Council,	28,500
2	Assistant Superintendents, each 6,000 liras, -	12,000
2	" " " 5,000 " -	10,000
2	" " " 4,000 " -	8,000
		58,500
	III. Materials, - - - - -	60,000
	Inspections, - - - - -	30,000
		90,000

Total expenditure for central administration in 1866, was 367,000 liras.
The members of the school council and the delegates receive no salary.

Ministerial Budget of Public Instruction for 1869.

Central administration, - - - - -	364,000.00	liras.
Provincial administration,, - - - - -	444,465.00	"
Primary instruction, - - - - -	1,500,000.00	"
Normal schools and courses, - - - - -	1,056,380.90	"
Instruction of deaf mutes, - - - - -	94,914.00	"
Secondary instruction, - - - - -	4,092,870.18	"
Superior and special instruction, - - - - -	5,469,386.52	"
Scientific and literary institutes, museums, and libraries, - - - - -	805,542.03	"
Fine arts, - - - - -	1,473,868.00	"
Archives, . - - - - -	227,802.87	"
Sundries, - - - - -	137,624.00	"
Total, - - - - -	15,674,561.50	"
Extraordinary expenses, - - - - -	167,800.00	"
Total, - - - - -	15,842,361.50	"

Or about \$3,168,482.

II. ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

INTRODUCTION.

Elementary instruction is regulated throughout Italy by the law of November 13, 1859, which follows closely the Sardinian school code as it was in 1857. By the terms of this enactment (art. 326) instruction of this grade is made compulsory upon all children between the ages of six and fourteen; parents or guardians neglecting their duty in this regard being liable to reprimand, and for persistent neglect, to fines or other punishments.

The schools are divided into two grades, lower and upper. In the former are taught religion, reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, the elements of the metrical system, and the mother tongue. In those of the higher grade these studies are carried further, and to them are added composition, calligraphy, book-keeping, elementary geography, the national history, and certain notions of the most important sciences applicable to the occupations of daily life. Furthermore, in the male schools of the higher grade are pursued the rudiments of geometry and of drawing, and in the female schools the use of the needle, and other domestic work.

Each commune must maintain at least one school of the lower grade for males, and one for females, although the minister may permit several communities to unite for this purpose, in case the expense is too great for any one of them. Schools of the higher grade must be maintained by all towns or boroughs which number more than 4,000 inhabitants, or in which are situated any of those establishments for higher education which require previous acquaintance with the more advanced elementary studies. But if any such community is unable to meet the outlay necessary for such a school, these courses may be added to the duties of the teachers in those of the lower grade.

The law also requires that special attention should be paid to female education, particularly in regard to household duties, and the use of the needle. Mixed schools (for boys and girls) exist in some places.

Grades of Schools and Classification of Scholars.

Elementary schools are divided into town or city and rural schools, the former being established in places where there are institutions for technical or middle classical instruction, or where the population is so large that higher elementary schools must be maintained. All others are rural except those in communities numbering less than five hundred souls, which are not considered in this classification. Both town and rural schools are subdivided into three classes, the first class of the former including all those in towns whose population is above 40,000, the second where the population is more than 15,000, the third including all others. The first class of the latter embraces those established in communes which are the chief provincial towns (*capoluoghi di mandamento*), or number more than 8,000 souls, the second for those above 2,000, all others falling into the

third. The classification is made by the provincial authorities, municipal corporations, superintendents, and provincial school councils, together, the last official census being taken as the basis, although modifications may be made every year.

The course in both higher and lower grades lasts two years, each with two classes, the first class of the lower grade including two sections. Where both grades are united in one institution, there are two classes and three sections. The partition of the different branches among the different classes being arranged by the municipal authorities, varies in different places, according to local circumstances.

Administrative Authorities.

The schools are governed by the municipal authorities, or by special committees chosen annually among the communal councilors or other persons properly qualified. It is their duty to see that admissions are properly made, to visit the schools, to look to the maintenance of law and regulations, and to represent the mayors in their absence.

Provincial school councils may appoint special superintendents to represent the inspectors of districts (*ispettori di circondario*) in schools kept by private or public corporations and associations, and to inspect the infant asylums and other establishments of elementary instruction.

Female schools are subject to the inspection of female inspectors, who act in concert with the municipal superintendents.

School Attendance, Classification, and Promotion.

The elementary schools open on the 15th of October, and close on the 15th of August, and all candidates for any class, not provided with certificates from a public school, must present themselves for examination during the first ten days.

Examinations, both written and oral, upon the studies pursued, are held every six months—all arrangements relative to them being directed by the municipal superintendent, unless state officials interpose. Certificates are granted promoting the candidates, and prizes are given to the most deserving. The persons conducting the examinations, are, for the lower classes, the teacher of the class and the teacher into whose class the pupils desire to enter. For an upper class the examiners are the teacher of that class and two other teachers of classes of the same grade, or of lower grades, the last being appointed by the municipal superintendent.

Topics for written examinations are proposed by the inspectors, or if not by them, by the teacher of the next higher class, or in default of these, by such teachers as the superintendents may appoint.

Where only one school exists, the teachers are the only examiners, in concurrence with the municipal superintendents and municipal boards.

Religious examinations are held by the clergy, but are obligatory upon those of the Roman Catholic faith alone. The needle-work done in the female schools is laid before the female inspectors, the municipal superin-

tendents, and the teacher of the class examined, one month before the close of the term.

Every examiner can add to the extent of ten marks to the results of the written and oral examinations, on account of the conduct of the pupil during the year. Six marks is the standard of approbation.

The oral exercises last twenty minutes in the lower classes, and thirty in the higher. Written examinations must not take place on Saturdays in schools resorted to by Jews.

The written examinations required for promotion, are as follows:

To the upper section of the first class, a specimen of penmanship consisting of writing down short words from dictation, sums in addition and subtraction involving numbers from one to twenty.

To the second class, a specimen of penmanship consisting of writing down short prose extracts from dictation, exercises in addition and subtraction involving numbers between one and one hundred, and answers to simple questions on the studies which have been pursued.

To the third class, a specimen of penmanship, solutions of arithmetical problems, the composition of short letters or tales, or descriptions of given subjects, exercises in conjugation or the analysis of short periods.

To the fourth class, a specimen of penmanship, compositions consisting of short tales, letters, or descriptions on some given subject, the analysis of short periods, solutions of arithmetical problems. Final examinations of the fourth class are the same as for entering this class, but involving more difficult principles, such as problems upon the metrical system, and the turning of poetry into prose.

Teachers.

Males who have reached the eighteenth year, and females who have reached the seventeenth, provided with a certificate of good morals from the mayors of the place where they live, and with a diploma of qualification, given them after due examination, may be appointed teachers by the municipal authorities, the appointment being ratified by the school provincial councils, and extending over three years, unless expressly limited. If a teacher is not notified of dismissal six months before the expiration of the term, it is considered that his appointment is renewed.

Besides the general duties of punctuality and assiduity in his profession, the school-master is required to make in the school register a monthly statement of the conduct and progress of his pupils, to inform parents regarding the same from time to time, and to present to the mayors, ten days before the close of the term, a detailed report of the year, a copy of which is to be sent to the district inspectors. He must use only those text books ordered by the school authorities, and in all cases of doubt, must consult the district inspectors, and in regard to matters relating to the discipline, morals, or furniture of the school, must refer to the municipal superintendents or mayors. He must daily assign to his pupils one lesson to be learned by heart, and thrice a week, at least, some work to be done at home; must obtain from them once a month a written specimen of their profi-

ciency, and before the close of the year, must give them tasks to be performed during the holidays, in which they are examined at the re-opening of the school. He must also notice the personal cleanliness and dress of his pupils.

He, or the municipal superintendent, can punish his pupils by admonition, repetition of imperfectly learned lessons, note of censure in the school registers, separation of the offender from his comrades, and suspension, of which the parents must be informed. Harsh and offensive words, corporal punishments, and extra lessons as penalties, are forbidden. Suspension of a pupil for eight days and expulsion can be inflicted by the municipal superintendent at the teacher's request, but expulsion requires the concurrence of the mayor.

Teachers guilty of professional neglect, or other offences, may be punished according to the nature of the case, with (1), censure; (2), suspension from office and deprivation of salary for a period between two weeks and two months, which period must not be computed in the years of their service; (3), deposition from office, incapacitating them to teach for a period of between six months and two years; (4), interdiction for a period under three years, or for life, resulting in not only the effects of deposition, but also in the loss of all rights and advantages connected with their diploma. These punishments are inflicted by the provincial councils, or provisionally, by mayors, in cases of emergency.

The following table exhibits the minimum salaries, in liras, paid to teachers in the town and rural schools:

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	Grade.	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.
Town, - - -	Superior,	1,200	1,000	900
	Inferior,	900	800	700
Rural, - - -	Superior,	800	700	600
	Inferior,	650	550	500

Teachers in schools in places with less than 500 population and in those where instruction is given during a part of the year only, are paid sums less than the above.

The state and the provinces often bear a part of the expenditure. State subsidies are directed to making up the deficiencies in the teachers' salaries, while provincial subsidies are devoted to defraying the cost of school buildings, furniture, and similar material expenditures.

To provide pensions for teachers in their old age, a fund (*cassa*) called *Monte delle Pensioni pei Maestri Elementari*, has been established, to which teachers contribute two and a half per cent. of their salaries, and from which pensions, equal in amount to their salaries, are paid to all who have reached the age of fifty-five and have seen thirty years of service; those incapacitated from duty after fifteen years of service, receive a pension of one-third. Widows of teachers receive pensions so long as they remain unmarried.

PRIVATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The inspection exercised by the school authorities over private elementary schools does not extend beyond matters relating to health, morals, public order, and the fundamental institutions of the state.

Persons possessing diplomas from lyceums or technical institutes are qualified to give private elementary instruction after duly informing the provincial inspector through the district inspector.

No certificate is necessary to enable a person to give instruction in the Sunday or Holiday schools.

STATISTICS.

The following statistics are taken from the "Documents of Elementary Instruction," issued by the Minister of Public Instruction. The province of Venetia is not included. According to the reports, the number of public schools fell off between 1864 and 1866, and increased again between 1866 and 1868. The decrease was owing, probably, to the Austrian war, the condition of the currency, and the transfer of the capital from Turin to Florence.

The total number of elementary schools of all sorts was, in 1864, 31,804; in 1866, 31,117; in 1868, 33,027; that is, in 1864, one school for 667 inhabitants; in 1866, one for 699; and in 1868, one for 659.

The total increase is 5.7 per cent., and is most marked in the provinces of Reggio d'Emilia (15 per cent.), Messina (16 per cent.), Naples (17 per cent.), Florence (18 per cent.), Forli (21 per cent.), Ravenna (22 per cent.), Terra di Lavarò (24 per cent.), Hither Calabria (32 per cent.), Grosseto (38 per cent.), Terra di Bari (60 per cent.)

Out of 33,027 schools in 1868, 17,613, or 53 per cent., were for males; 12,793, or 38 per cent., for females; and 2,621, or 9 per cent., mixed. Out of the 1,910 new schools between 1866 and 1868, 647 were male, 715 female, and 558 mixed, showing an increase of the ratio of the latter.

Out of the 33,027 schools in 1868, 27,132 were public, showing an increase of 4.4 per cent., and 5,895 private, an increase of 1.3 per cent., but in 1864, the number of the latter was 6,805, making since then a total decrease of nearly 1,000. In the private schools the ratio of females is greater than in public institutions.

The number of schools decreases, with some exceptions, as we advance from north to south, as can be seen from the following statistics: In Piedmont there is one school to 384 inhabitants; in Lombardy, one to 436; in Liguria, one to 476; in Tuscany and Marche, one to 667; in Emilia, one to 718; in Umbria and Sardinia, one to 853; in Abruzzia Calabria, and Molise, one to 1,000; in Puglie, one to 1,110; in Basilicata and Sicily, one to 1,160. The provinces best provided for, are Porto Maurizio, Sondrio, Bergamo, Torino, Novaro, Brescia, Como; those with the least complete provision, Messina, Trapani, Potenza, Reggio di Calabria, Syracuse, Girgenti, Cattanisetta.

The number of teachers was, in 1868, 34,435, that is 2,054 more than in 1866, the ratio of increase being higher among the female teachers, who were 1,327 of the whole increase. But the increase of male teachers is

greater than that of the females in the southern districts, while the opposite relation exists in the north.

Of the 34,435 teachers in 1868, twenty-six per cent., or 9,086 were ecclesiastics. But the ratio of the ecclesiastics to the other teachers is generally speaking greater in the southern provinces than in the north, although there are some exceptions to this rule. The ratio in Milan is 4; in Sondrio and Bologna, 14; in Pavia, Ancona, and Florence, 16; Palermo and Messina, 38; Terra di Bari and Capitanata, 39; in Farther Calabria, 41; in Hither Calabria, 46; in Basilicata, 54. Among the exceptions of large ratios in the north are Liguria, with 40 per cent.; Alessandria, with 29; Torino, with 24.

The number of pupils entering all the elementary schools in 1868, was 1,319,367, while in 1862, it was 1,008,674; in 1864, 1,178,743; in 1866, 1,217,870. Thus the increase from 1866 to 1868, was 101,492. But the whole number of children of age to attend these schools is 15 per cent. of the entire population, while the above number is only 6.05, a large proportion of those who enter, leave school at too early an age.

Of the whole number of pupils, 743,145, or 56 per cent., are males, and 576,222, or 44 per cent., are females. The proportion of females decreases from north to south, and may be taken as a measure of the degree of cultivation of any particular province.

The number of elementary schools in the province of Venetia in 1868, was 8,296, one to 792 inhabitants, one-fifth less than in the rest of Italy. Private schools formed 17 per cent. of the whole number. Mixed and female schools are rare. The number of pupils was 165,168, of which 126,382, or 76 per cent., were males; 38,886, or 24 per cent., females.

Of the teachers, 18 per cent. are clergymen.

No extensive or searching inquiry into the causes of the prevailing neglect of elementary education has yet been made, although special committees have been appointed for this purpose.

The law of 1859, declaring primary education compulsory, prescribed no penalties. It was attempted in the regulations of September 15, 1860, to remedy this defect, and the mayor was authorized to administer an admonition to those offending, or in case of persistent neglect, to petition the judge of the district (*giudice di mandamento*), that the recusant should be punished according to the provisions of the Penal Code.

This was, however, promulgated by a decree of the executive power, not by a law, so that the question might arise whether the judge of the district could apply the penalties. But the question has never been tested as no guilty person has yet been brought before the authorities.

Another hindrance to the execution of the law is, that as elementary instruction is gratuitous, the communes are taxed for the whole cost, which bears so heavily upon them that they refuse to vote the necessary supplies. In some places, also, inferior teachers are hired at diminished salaries. In others, the great number and sparseness of the peasant population aggravates the difficulties to such an extent that State interference alone will be able to overcome them.

III. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Secondary instruction in Italy is regulated in Piedmont, Lombardy, the Marche, and Umbria, by the law of 1859, and in all other provinces, by laws not essentially different from those of the former. The principle on which this law is based is, that classical instruction shall be distinctly separated from technical, and consequently, all the schools that furnish the former constitute a course separate from those that furnish the latter, since they have a special organization.

I. SECONDARY CLASSICAL SCHOOLS.

The following is the type of the classical schools. The whole course of studies extends through eight years, of which the first five are passed in a school called gymnasium, and three in one called lyceum.

The gymnasium has an organization distinct from that of the lyceum, so much so indeed, that one can exist without the other, since each is complete in itself.

The course in the gymnasium consists of the following subjects: 1. Italian, and French (where that language is spoken). 2. Latin. 3. Greek. 4. Rhetoric. 5. Arithmetic. 6. Geography. 7. History; Greek and Latin antiquities.

This course is continued in the lyceum with: 1. Philosophy. 2. Elements of mathematics. 3. Physics, and elements of chemistry. 4. Italian literature. 5. Greek literature. 6. Natural history.

The instruction afforded by the lyceum is of a higher grade than the instruction at the gymnasiums; but any student is free to leave school, not only after the first five years of gymnasium, but also at the end of each year. Experience shows it to be a very common occurrence in Italy for pupils to decrease in numbers as they pass from the lower to the upper classes, and more especially, from gymnasium to lyceum. A statement based on the figures supplied by the *Calendar of Public Instruction* for 1867-68, gives us proof of this lamentable fact.

The gymnasiums, mentioned in this statement, number about 104, with a total of 8,759 pupils. If, in our estimate, we consider separately each of the five years constituting the whole course, we arrive at the following result:

Years.	Pupils.	Av. per annum.
1st, - - - - -	2,000	19.2
2d, - - - - -	1,807	19.7
3d, - - - - -	1,800	17.3
4th, - - - - -	1,623	15.5
5th, - - - - -	1,489	14.3
	<hr/> 8,759	<hr/> 84.2

The lyceums, numbering 79, contain about 3,446 pupils, including 120 auditors for the first year, distributed as follows among the three years which constitute the course:

Years.	Pupils.	Av. per annum.
1st, - - - - -	1,494	18.9
2d, - - - - -	1,055	13.4
3d, - - - - -	897	11.4
	<hr/> 3,446	<hr/> 43.6

The proportion, as is seen here, is very small, and this indicates that the lyceums are too numerous; a fact that cannot be denied. The following is a statement giving their exact number, and showing in what proportion they are distributed among the various provinces, with the number of pupils attending each :

	Lyceums.	Pupils.	Av. per Lyceum.	Av. per annum.
Piedmont, - -	12	655	54.5	18
Lombardy, - -	10	688	68.8	23
Venetia, - -	9	704	78.2	26
Emilia, - -	12	382	31.8	10
Tuscany, - -	8	230	28.7	9
Naples, - -	18	464	25.7	8
Sicily, - -	8	219	27.3	9
Sardinia, - -	2	103	51.5	17

Administration and Expenses.

The laws which regulate secondary instruction, in the annexed Italian provinces, were promulgated by the provisional governments, in the years 1860 and 1861, with the exception of Venetia, where, after its purchase from Austria, the Italian government partly modified (1866) the previously existing Austrian law.

These various laws are alike as regards the branches taught in secondary instruction, but they differ in respect to the relation of the gymnasium to the lyceum, the organization of their administration, and the arrangements of the budgets by which their expenses are to be defrayed.

According to the law of 1859, each gymnasium has its director (*direttore*), and each lyceum its president (*preside*).

The professors of the gymnasium and those of the lyceum are distinguished as titular (*titolari*) and regent (*reggenti*). A gymnasium has five professors, three of whom, at least, are of the first order, while a lyceum has seven professors, four of whom are of the same order.

The professors titular are appointed by the king, at the recommendation of the minister of instruction; the regents by the latter. Both, however, must be selected from persons who have already acquired a high reputation for proficiency in those matters which they are called upon to teach, and who have been declared eligible by a committee of five examiners appointed by the ministers.

But not all are allowed to appear before this committee. The competition is not free. Applicants for admission to the competition must have obtained the degree of university doctor in that science, or department, whose teaching is the object of the competition, or show other legal certificates, concerning the nature of which the law is not very precise.

Persons admitted to competition may be appointed professors regent by the minister, even without previous examination; but cannot be nominated professors titular without previously appearing at a competitive examination instituted for that purpose, and being declared eligible by the examiners. Students leaving the high normal schools with a diploma, and wishing to be appointed teachers of secondary instruction, (if provided with a good certificate of proficiency,) are very likely to become regenta, and even titular professors, by subsequently presenting themselves for a competitive examination.

The law of 1859 enjoins that in each provincial chief town, and in each chief town of a district, (in Italy, neither of these political divisions of land answers to any definite number of inhabitants, or to any exact extent of territory,) there shall be a gymnasium, and one lyceum for each province.

The financial expenses connected with the gymnasium devolve upon the municipalities of the towns possessing it. The expenses of the lyceum are shared by the towns and the government in this manner: that the municipalities supply the premises, the furniture, and all the scientific apparatus that is required, while the government attends to the rest.

This proposed division of the expenses, however, is nowhere perfectly realized. The operation of the law has been paralyzed, partly by the preceding laws, which regulated this matter in the various provinces, and partly by the laws of the provisional governments. For instance, in Piedmont, where the law of 1847 had been promulgated, gymnasiums were left entirely to the charge of the government; in other parts, the municipalities entered into a covenant with the government, by which the latter bound itself to defray all expenses, and the former to repay them in some measure. In Lombardy such burdens fell upon the government, and this state of things still continues. In Sicily the provisional government issued a law by which it bound itself to defray the expenses of a lyceum in every provincial chief town, and those of a gymnasium in every chief town of a district, or in every town with a population of more than 20,000 inhabitants. In the ex-kingdom of Naples they are still connected, as they were formerly, with the lyceum, and the wants of both are provided by endowments of their own, the government giving subsidies only when and where deficiencies occur.

The lyceums and gymnasiums are divided into three classes, distinguished by the amount of the salaries allowed to the professors.

Municipal and Private Secondary Instruction.

The classical schools, of which we have hitherto spoken, were established by law, and are regulated by the minister of public instruction, through his agents, and in pursuance of by-laws published separately. Municipalities and private citizens, however, are authorized by law to establish schools, concerning which the minister can exercise no other

right, but that of overlooking and promoting the interests of public morality.

All municipal corporations have the right, if they choose to use it, to open secondary schools, but they must prove that they have already supplied the ways and means for that instruction, which the law obliges those schools to give. For instance, a secondary classical institute of the second degree (a lyceum) cannot be founded by a municipal corporation, unless the latter prove to the minister that it has already opened technical schools.

The municipal schools have their professors appointed by the municipal boards. They can, however, be elected solely from those individuals whom the minister of public instruction may have appointed to places of regents in schools established by law.

The municipal schools are subject to the inspection of the ministry, but are quite free in regard to the method of teaching, and the arrangement of the hours of study. But, should the municipal boards wish to assimilate their institutions to the public schools, with respect to rights and privileges, they can effect this by a thorough compliance with the by-laws that regulate the latter. Such privileges, however, are of no great value. In fact, they are confined to enabling students coming out of municipal schools to enter any class of public schools; not, however, without previous examination, and to allowing the former to be, like the latter, seats of examination boards.

With respect to private teaching, any citizen who is twenty-five years of age has the right to open a school, provided he be authorized to do so by the representative of the ministry, who presides over the instruction of a province. The representative may refuse his permission when the applicant does not enjoy public esteem, or lives with persons of equivocal reputation, or when the premises in which he intends to establish the school are unwholesome, or situated in a disreputable neighborhood. The permission is taken for granted if no opposition is shown for two months after the request.

Private schools are inspected by the proper authorities, nor can their principals object to such visits. The said authorities must also see that the teachers employed by private institutions are furnished with the certificates required by the law; that they have never been punished for criminal offences, or been bankrupts; and that, should they have been condemned, the cause of condemnation was neither theft, embezzlement, swindling, nor outrages upon morality. On this point the law is very severe; for a person that has been condemned for the above-mentioned offences, not only can not be a public or a private teacher, but is even excluded from the competitive examinations. There is another condition in opening a private school. The organizers must publish their plan of instruction, and can not assign more than two branches to a single teacher. Any modification of their plan must also be made public, and it is the duty of the representative of the ministry to see that this plan is pursued by the school.

Greater liberty is allowed to private citizens who do not wish to open schools, but to give publicly a single course of lessons. They are not required to publish a plan, but they can not exempt themselves from the inspection of the lawful representatives of the ministry, who are empowered to close private establishments, and put an end to private lecturing, when urgent cases require such a measure. In so doing, they must consult the school council, and the close of a school is considered final only after a decree of the minister, who takes the opinion of the superior council before issuing it.

Such restrictions affect only private instruction delivered publicly, but any father, at his own house, is quite at liberty to give his sons what masters he pleases, without any inspection but his own. Fathers are free to co-operate in opening a school to teach their children, on their own responsibility, and under their superintendence.

The schools founded and ruled by religious corporations have been modeled after the royal or municipal free schools. Since 1867, however, the law acknowledges no religious corporations, so that such bodies exist now as private associations, and their schools, which still continue to be as much frequented as before, are of a distinctively private nature.

The laws of some provinces of Italy allow greater liberty to private teachers, while in others, such as the ex-kingdom of the two Sicilies, the ecclesiastical schools governed by bishops, are subject to a more severe oversight. No teacher, for instance, can be appointed by a bishop without the consent of the government. Yet, as there is but one superior council of public instruction to which all questions relative to private and ecclesiastical teaching are referred, there is a natural tendency to apply everywhere the principles laid down by the law of 1859, which we have previously explained.

Since 1865, bishops have not been able to exercise their rights so extensively as to keep ecclesiastical schools for other purposes than the teaching of divinity. That such schools may be a continuation of the courses in the gymnasium and lyceum, they must conform to the conditions of private institutions, and submit to the oversight of the scholastic civil authorities. They obey, but reluctantly.

Method of Teaching.

The law does not restrict the choice of a professor to particular textbooks, although the superior or the provincial councils point out the best, it being preferred to leave the matter to experience. Public authorities confine themselves to indicating the limits and end of instruction, and to laying down a few guiding principles.

This is done by the minister of public instruction by means of regulations and programmes. These programmes have been several times altered, the present form having been given them by Signor Copprino, minister in 1867. He declared his object to be to define more strictly the extent of the studies to be pursued in each school, because the schools were apt to

transcend the limits set to them by the capacity of the scholars, avoiding, however, the danger of fettering the master by too precise rules, which had been one of the errors of preceding programmes. Besides this, he wished to lay more stress upon instruction in morals. He enjoined in particular the more thorough study of the Latin authors read, the turning into Latin again of Italian translations, and memorizing select passages from the classics. The study of Latin versifications, in dactyls, is required, and the advantage of composing poetry in this language is pointed out, but it is not made obligatory.

The study of Latin in the gymnasiums is continued through the five classes, and is arranged as follows. During the whole course there are re-translations from Italian into Latin, beginning with very short sentences in the first year, and also memorizing select passages from the authors read :

I. CLASS.—Declensions, conjugations of regular verbs, *esse*, and part of the irregular verbs, syntax of agreement, and grammatical analysis. Translating sentences from L'Homond's *Epitome Historiæ Sacræ*.

II. CLASS.—Declensions and conjugations; syntax of agreement; Cornelius Nepos, Phædrus' Fables; written translations.

III. CLASS.—Declensions and conjugations; quantity; general and particular remarks on compounds; derived names; derivation and meaning of final syllables; syntax of agreement, tenses and moods; Cæsar, *De Bello Gallico*; Ovid, *Fasti*.

IV. CLASS.—Syntax of tenses and moods; prosody and versification, particularly the elegiac verse; formation of words; Cæsar, *De Bello Gallico*; Virgil, *Eclogues* and *Æneid*.

V. CLASS.—Syntax of tenses and moods; prosody and versification; Livy, histories; Sallust, *Cataline* and *Jugurtha*; Virgil, *Æneid*.

At the end of each year are written examinations in reference to classification and promotion.

The course pursued in the lyceums is similar, but more advanced. The programmes direct that for the study of the classics the best text-books be used, and that the parts to be read be selected with especial view to their literary beauty and elevating character. Cicero's letters and orations are particularly mentioned, and their vivid historical character referred to. It is desired that this study be directed, so far as may be, to the moral development of the pupil, and to increase his logical faculty, and his love of truth, by clothing it in the most elegant expressions. Latin composition is recommended, and the writing of original essays in Latin, on subjects literary and historical. The strictest attention and most scrupulous correctness are to be enforced; particular attention is to be paid to Latin metres.

The study of Latin is carried on in the lyceums as follows. During the whole course there are compositions in prose, the subjects being notes and remarks upon some classic. Also choice passages from all of the authors read, are to be memorized.

I. CLASS.—Livy's and Tacitus' Histories, Virgil's Georgics and Æneid, with grammatical, philological, historical, and literary illustrations.

II. CLASS.—Cicero's oratorical and rhetorical works, and the Odes of Horace, with explanations.

III. CLASS.—Cicero's philosophical works, and Quintilian's *Institutiones Oratoriæ*, with explanations.

Written examinations close each year, with written prose compositions, or criticisms of passages from some classic author.

Religious Instruction.

Religious instruction, difficult enough in schools of every grade, is attended with peculiar difficulties in secondary classical instruction.

The Italians are almost all Catholic, but the government looks upon the Catholic priests as hostile, and dislikes to set them over the schools.

The law of 1859 charges the minister of public instruction with the choice of a religious teacher (*direttore spirituale*), for each gymnasium, but this teacher and the bishop are often at variance, making the position of the former one of difficulty. The director's authority is not sufficient to compel the pupils to attend this instruction, and no religious examinations are therefore made. The consequence is that religious instruction is neglected, and many parents, on account of this defect, send their children to corporate, or private schools, which in an intellectual point of view, are inferior.

Examinations.

No student can enter the classical public schools of the two grades without a previous examination, nor be promoted from any one of the eight classes to a higher, without having passed the examination held for each class at the close of the year.

A student can be admitted to any class in either grade, by passing an examination on the previous studies, or proving that he has studied in other schools (municipal, private, or parental) which have complied with the requirements of the law.

The examinations for admission to the gymnasium are conducted by the director, with the assistance of a committee of four members by him appointed; those for admission to the lyceum by the president, under the superintendence of a committee of four members, selected by the school council of the province, either from the teachers of the school, or from persons not connected with it.

At the close of the course in the gymnasium a certificate is given to the pupil, called *licenza ginnasiale*; also one at the close of the course in the lyceum, called *licenza liceale*.

The final examinations in the gymnasium are conducted before a committee of eight, appointed by the *provveditore*,* and presided over by the director; in the lyceum (since 1867, when first instituted,) before a com-

* One *provveditore* is appointed in each province to represent the central superintendency.

mittee appointed by the minister, and since the same year, (1867,) the examinations have been more severe.

A central committee, composed of eight ordinary and eight extraordinary members, is appointed for all the kingdom, every three years. This committee appoints a local committee of examiners every year, and a royal delegate for each royal lyceum.

In the whole course of the eight years, the examinations are as follows: Italian, Latin, and Greek literature, written examinations; history, geography, philosophy, mathematics, physics, natural history, written and oral examinations. The central committee proceeds to the examination on Italian, Latin, and Greek literature, by sending three sealed papers to each place of examination, to be opened before the students assembled in one room, and strictly watched, while the examinations are going on. The paper assigned to the examination on Italian literature contains a subject for composition; the paper for Latin literature, a test-piece of Latin prose or verse, to be translated into Italian, and accompanied by a Latin commentary, and several grammatical and historical questions, to be answered in Latin or Italian, as the student chooses. The paper relative to Greek literature contains a test piece of classic prose to be translated and explained where grammatical questions arise. Written examinations are sent by the royal delegate to the central committee for approval.

With respect to other matters, the examinations are made before the local committees, with the utmost liberty as to queries, not exceeding, however, the limits assigned by the programme of examinations, yearly issued by the central committee.

Both the central and local committees express their opinions by assigning to the examined pupils a certain number of marks. Each individual examiner can give ten marks. A student that obtains an average of six marks from each individual examiner, passes; but fails, if he does not succeed in reaching that number.

The ordinary session of examination is held in August, but students who have failed at their first examination are allowed to renew them, totally or partially, on those matters with which they have been declared insufficiently acquainted, at the extraordinary session of October. These second examinations are assuming an extremely severe character, and efforts are being made to introduce a system of equal distribution of the whole number of marks among the different subjects. In order to prevent all possible deception on the part of the students during examination time, it has been resolved this year, that the pupils shall appear before the local committees for oral examinations on Italian, Latin, and Greek literature.

Many objections may be made to the new system. Though greatly modified, it was modeled after the Oxford and Cambridge examinations. The result of the innovations introduced into it these last two years has been to ascertain better than has ever been done before, the lamentable condition of the classical instruction, and to prove that private schools are

much inferior to public, but that the former, unfortunately, are still much more frequented than the latter.

We here subjoin a statement of the results of the examinations for admission to the lyceums for the last two years.

In the ordinary session of 1868, when written examinations were approved to the extent of 11 per cent., the government lyceums, and those modeled after them, gave an average of 20 per cent.; provincial and municipal schools, 6 per cent.; schools conducted by religious ex-corporations, 3 per cent.; family schools, $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The results of the preceding year, as compared with those of 1868, are not essentially different. The government lyceums, and those on their plan, gave a result, which, on the average, was greater, by 2 per cent., than that of 1868; the remaining items are about the same.

We here perceive an enormous difference; the percentage from government schools is four times greater than from all others put together. Notwithstanding all this, in 1867, out of 2,400 pupils, 964 came out of government and assimilated schools; 1,355 out of private schools, and 85 out of family schools. In 1868, out of 3,339 pupils, 1,112 came out of government and assimilated schools; 1,418 out of private schools, and 509 out of family schools. So large an increase of pupils of the last-named class can only be explained by the supposition, that many of them, brought up in schools conducted by religious corporations, thought fit to declare in their subscription bill that they had received their education at home.

Fees paid by Students.

Public instruction in secondary schools is not wholly gratuitous. A student must pay a fee at the examinations, and another for the course. The former are paid previous to the examination, and are the following:

For admission examination: gymnasium, 10 liras; lyceum, 30 liras. For final examination: gymnasium, 40 liras; lyceum, 60 liras.

The tuition fee is paid semi-annually, in October and April, and amounts to 35 liras in the gymnasium, and 40 liras in the lyceum.

These fees are received by the government, and not by the professors. No student is exempted from them, except poor young men, distinguished for talent, application, and good behavior.

The members of the committees appointed to the final and admission examinations, receive the following small fees from students:

Admission examination: gymnasium, 80 centesimi; lyceum, 1 lira, 80 centesimi. Final examination: gymnasium, 2 liras, 50 centesimi; lyceum, 3 liras, 50 centesimi.

Members of committees conducting the above examinations are entitled to certain additional fees, paid by the government, out of the amount of the taxes levied upon the students; the whole sum paid amounting to 110,000 liras.

The officers in the gymnasiums and lyceums are paid as follows:

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The officers in the gymnasiums and lyceums are paid as follows:

In the lyceums, the president from 2,000 to 3,000 liras; the professors titular, 1,600 to 2,200; the professors regent, 1,440 to 1,760. In the gymnasiums, the directors, 1,600 to 2,000; the professors titular, for the two superior classes, 1,600 to 2,000; for the three inferior classes, 1,400 to 1,800; the professors regent, similarly, 1,280 to 1,600, and 1,120 to 1,440. A special teacher of arithmetic and geography is paid 700 to 1,120.

School Terms.

The public schools in Italy are generally what the French call *externats*, that is, schools for day scholars, where pupils assemble for the sole purpose of attending lectures, and showing their exercises. The daily attendance varies from four to five hours, with a short recess of half an hour.

According to the by-law of 1865, the academical year ought to begin on the 15th of October, and end on the 15th of August; but it actually begins some fifteen days later, and ends some fifteen days earlier. Moreover, on the 21st of July, lectures take the place of the examinations.

Holidays are limited to: Christmas (4 days); Carnival (3 days); Easter (6 days); New Year; Epiphany; Ascension; Whitsunday; the day of the celebration of the constitution, which falls on the first Sunday in June; Sundays and Thursdays; Thursdays are not considered holidays, when other holidays occur in the week.

Hours of Attendance.

The number of hours devoted each week to the several subjects of instruction are as follows:

In the Gymnasium:

Latin—10 hours in I, II, and III classes; 6 hours in IV and V.
 Greek—5 hours in IV and V.
 Italian—7 in I, II, III, and 5 in the IV, and 4 in the V.
 History—4 in IV and V.
 Mathematics—5 in V.
 Geography—3 in I, II, III.

In the Lyceum:

Latin—5 in I, II, III.
 Greek—5 in I, II, III.
 Italian—6 in I; 4 in II.
 Writing— $7\frac{1}{2}$ in I; $4\frac{1}{2}$ in II.
 Mathematics—6 in I; $4\frac{1}{2}$ in II.
 Physics—9 in III.
 Natural History and Physical Geography—5 in III.
 Philosophy, Lectures, Conferences— $4\frac{1}{2}$ in II and III.

Colleges.

In many places, colleges (*convitti*) are connected with gymnasiums and lyceums, where boys are lodged and boarded at prices varying at different places.

The colleges are of three kinds: national, communal, and private. The law affects only the first two kinds. The last, comprising free institu-

tions, which are dependent upon the ministry, only as far as morality and order are concerned.

National and communal colleges are managed by rectors nominated by the king for those of the first class, and by the municipalities for those of the second class. The choice is impartial; the most worthy man is chosen without a university degree or other certificate being required. Within the last few years, laymen were for the first time appointed to such places before filled by ecclesiastics. The teacher of religion and a *censor morum* are appointed by the rector.

College pupils attend the public schools, together with the day scholars, but within the precincts of some colleges, there are often particular schools preparatory to the gymnasial course.

College pupils are divided into classes (*classi o camerate*), and are uniformed and drilled. Each class has a tutor, or *prefetto*, who has supervision out of the school-rooms. These *prefetti* receive only from four to five hundred liras a year.

No class can have more than twenty pupils. Corporeal punishment is proscribed, as well as prizes in money.

The penalties laid upon college pupils are as follows:

1. Deprivation of a part or the whole of the hours of recreation for one day or more.
2. Exclusion, for one or more times, from military exercises.
3. Separate meal eaten in silence.
4. Deprivation of visits of parents at the college.
5. Deprivation of visits to parents, and holidays out of the school.
6. Warning from the rector administered before the class.
7. Suspension from or loss of military rank.
8. Leaving off, for one day or more, the military uniform, and wearing a smock-frock.
9. Confinement to room (*camera di riflessione*), where a pupil is set to study, and watched from the outside. He is not to stay there more than two or three days.
10. Solemn warning before the council, and threat of expulsion.
11. Expulsion from college.

The rector alone can give his subalterns the power of inflicting the minor penalties; for the application of the principal punishment he shall refer to the council. The expulsion of pupils shall be decided upon by the council, who will immediately communicate with the minister.

Prizes, as we have said before, will not be of a material nature, such as additional dishes, diminution of the hours of study, or prolonged sleep. Books, visits to museums and galleries, excursions into the country, frequent visits to one's family, certificates of proficiency, oral or written, granted in the presence of one's class, or all the classes, or the assembled council, are the usual methods of reward. In cases of remarkable distinction, the council is authorized to grant, at the proposal of the rector, an extraordinary prize, of which notice shall be given to the minister.

The yearly expenditure of a college pensioner varies at different colleges. For instance, at the college of Turin, 660 liras are required; at those of Novara, Voghera, Cagliari, and Sassari, only 540; at the Longoni college of Milan, 900; at the college of Sondrio, 845.

Communal colleges may be founded in all districts where the municipalities can afford a gymnasium; or, in other words, have already determined and met the expenses of the schools of the second grade.

National colleges are scattered indiscriminately over the kingdom. Colleges were formerly, for the most part, clerical or Jesuitical institutions. Government has kept them where they found them, appropriating the property attached, on condition of maintaining such institutions. Such, however, is not the case everywhere. In many places colleges administer their own property, and provide for a part, or sometimes the whole of their expenditure.

The number of national colleges, according to the returns for 1868-69, is twenty-six, with a total of 1,738 pupils, distributed as follows among the different classes:

Elementary classes,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	502
First gymnasial class,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	248
Second " "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	208
Third " "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	194
Fourth " "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	151
Fifth " "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	130
First lycæal class,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	67
Second " "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48
Third " "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25

Besides these, 165 pupils attend the technical schools, of which we will speak hereafter.

Each college ought to have its pupils divided into ten classes, according to the regulations. None of them, however, have the three last; three only have the seventh; six, the sixth; eight, the fifth; thirteen, the fourth; and nearly all the first three.

The colleges most frequented are: that at Bari, with 112 pupils; that at Naples, with 118; that at Milan, with 97.

Each of the seventeen provinces of the ex-kingdom of the two Sicilies has its college, the collegiate form of classification being more conformable to the ideas of the former government.

There are seventeen communal colleges supported by government, and 117 unsupported ones, having a total of 7,806 pupils, which are divided into the said classes, much in the same proportion.

We have no statistical account of private colleges, where pupils are lodged and boarded.

The religious corporations had a great many colleges before their abolition. In the southern provinces all the royal colleges were in the hands of Jesuits, who together with the Padri Scolopii, Barnabiti, and other religious corporations, monopolised the secondary instruction throughout Italy, (with the exception of Piedmont,) before 1859, and in Piedmont

itself before 1848, the government retaining the right more or less efficacious of supervision. In Tuscany and Lombardy, however, even before 1848, the Jesuits had no schools. In 1853, a law was promulgated in Piedmont abolishing and disendowing religious corporations, with the exception of such as were devoted to educational purposes. A similar law was made binding throughout Italy in 1867. The question whether religious corporations, devoted to education, should be dissolved, was widely and seriously debated from 1860 to 1868, when a law was passed dissolving them, together with all kinds of religious corporations still remaining.

Abolishment and disendowment of religious corporations did not imply prohibition from self-conversion (when possible,) into free associations, to which, when so constituted, in many places the municipalities have entrusted their schools and colleges. The statistics of lyceum examinations, given above, show that they maintained a firmer hold on the public than the intrinsic value of their instruction would justify.

II. SECONDARY TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

The conception of the scope of technical instruction in the law of 1859, is very broad, but the provisions made are not sufficiently definite. Its aim is defined to be, "to give young men wishing to embrace a special career in the public service, or to devote themselves to any mechanical or commercial pursuit, or to the cultivation of land, a proper education, both general and special." It is evident that these words will cover an infinite variety of schools.

To supply such instruction, the law established a system which was certainly insufficient; although, under the impulse of the State, communities taking the initiative, many institutions of a new form and with more of science in their curriculum, were added to those previously existing.

The framers of the law of 1859, contented themselves with determining that technical instruction shall be of two grades, each grade being completed in a three years' course; that instruction of the first grade is to be given in so-called technical schools (*scuole tecniche*), and that of the second grade in the technical institutes (*istituti tecnici*); that one technical school shall be maintained in the chief town of each province; that technical institutes shall be opened "as their necessity shall be felt," in those towns which are the centres of industrial and commercial activity; that the costs of technical schools shall be defrayed by the communes, the state bearing one-half only of the whole sum paid for the salaries of teachers; that the cost of technical institutes shall be shared by the provinces, whose part it is to supply scientific apparatus and to pay the salaries of the teachers—the state, giving the same assistance as in the case of the technical schools—and the communes furnishing the premises and furniture.

The same law enacts that technical schools, and technical institutes, shall be kept distinct from the gymnasiums and lyceums, and that the simultaneous management of both shall never be entrusted to the same persons. The law, then, admits in no manner of an identification of these

two classes of schools, not even of the first three gymnasium classes, with the three classes of the technical school.

With regard to the subjects of instruction, the following provisions were made for technical schools of the first grade :

1. Italian. 2. French. 3. Arithmetic and accounts. 4. Elementary algebra and geometry. 5. Drawing and calligraphy. 6. Geography and history. 7. Elements of natural history, physics, and chemistry. 8. Notions concerning the duties and rights of citizens.

In technical institutes, the following branches are taught :

1. Italian literature. 2. History and geography. 3. English and German. 4. Institutes of administrative law (*diritto amministrativo*). 5. Political economy. 6. Details upon commerce. 7. Social arithmetic. 8. Chemistry. 9. Physics and elementary mechanics. 10. Algebra, plane and solid geometry, rectilinear trigonometry. 11. Drawing and elements of descriptive geometry. 12. Agriculture and natural history.

It is intended that so far as the natural and economical situation of the state may allow, instruction in all these branches shall be of a practical as well as theoretical character. Moreover, as it is not necessary that all the scholars pursue all the studies, the courses are divided into sections, the studies for each section being designated with a view to their utility in particular pursuits, the number of the sections, and the studies in each, varying according to the special needs of each province.

On this basis has the fabric of technical instruction in Italy been founded and carried up thus far. It might appear that by the provisions of this law, this instruction is to be general during the course of the technical school, and special in that of the institute. This interpretation owes its origin to the fact that in 1861 the direction of the technical course was divided between the minister of public instruction, to whom was entrusted the technical schools, and the minister of agriculture and commerce, to whom were assigned the technical institutes, a measure which widened more and more the separation between these two institutions, originally intended to connect.

I. TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

On the 19th of September, 1860, regulations were issued for the better distribution and disposition of the branches prescribed by law; which regulations have been by separate decrees put in force in all the states, except Tuscany, where the law and by-laws concerning technical education, published by the provisional government on March 14th of the same year, are still in force, and do not differ materially from the general system.

The following is the curriculum of the technical schools according to the regulations of September 19th, 1860, with the number of lessons per week assigned to each :

First year. Italian, geography, and history, each five lessons of two hours. Arithmetic, calligraphy, and ornament drawing, each five lessons of one hour.

Second year. Italian, geography, history, and plane and solid geometry, each four lessons of one hour and a half. Linear and ornament drawing, two lessons of one hour and a half. French, five lessons of two hours.

Third year. Italian, geography, history, and notions on the rights and duties of citizens, each three lessons of two hours. Algebra and elementary mechanics, two lessons of one hour and a half. French, and accounts, each four and a half hours weekly, in three lessons. Architectural drawing, two lessons of one hour and a half. Physics and chemistry, four lessons of one hour.

If the law of 1859 had been strictly adhered to, the state should have rendered assistance only to such technical schools as were established in the chief towns of the provinces, and many schools which had been opened in Piedmont under the provisions of the anterior law of May 11, 1858, not in such chief towns, would have been compelled to close their doors. The provisions of this anterior law were therefore declared to be in force, and a subsidy was promised by the State to all communes endowed with technical schools. On the other hand, the provisional government of 1860, while promulgating the law of 1859, did not completely provide for the execution of that part of it concerning the expenditure, and the proportion thereof to be borne by the communes and the State. In Sicily a clause was added to the law by which technical schools were to be entirely maintained by the State. Besides, technical schools did not, in all places, assume the character of State institutions; that is, institutions the nomination of whose teachers is in the hands of the State, which bears half the expense of teachers' salaries. In the province of Emilia, viz: in the ex-duchies of Parma and Modena, and the Romagna, these schools preserved their communal character, by a decree of January 21, 1860, although subsidised by the State; that is, their administration and the appointment of teachers belonged to the communes. It has been found impossible as yet to do away with these irregularities, and to render the system uniform. Parliament has been content with meeting the expenses for developing the system of technical instruction as demands were made, and the ministers have, by means of ordinances, regulated the distribution of these funds among the communes wishing to open new schools.

Technical schools are, therefore, with respect to the authorities on which they are dependent for their administration, divided into government, assimilated, and free. Government schools are subsidized, managed and directed by the State. Assimilated schools are those managed and directed by communes, with a strict adherence to the rules governing State schools with respect to the nomination of teachers, the amount of their salaries, and the distribution of studies, hours, etc. Finally, free or non-state schools are those managed by communes or provinces, on whatever system may seem best to themselves, and governed by their own officials.

The government technical schools were attended in the scholastic year 1868-69, by 5,868 pupils, as follows: Class I—students, 2,427; auditors, 154. Class II—students, 1,911; auditors, 126. Class III—students, 1,133; auditors, 117. The number of the schools was 55.

Assimilated schools to the number of 72 were attended as follows: Class I—students, 1,861; auditors, 89. Class II—students, 1,540; auditors, 80. Class III—students, 931; auditors, 93. Total, 4,594.

The free schools reached the high number of 138, and were attended by

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The free schools reached the high number of 138, and were attended by

6,495 pupils: Class I—students, 2,721; auditors, 223. Class II—students, 1,971; auditors, 171. Class III—students, 1,255; auditors, 154.

The total number, therefore, of students in the first grade of technical instruction was 16,957, of which 15,750 were regular students, and 1,207 auditors, divided among the three classes as follows: Class I—students, 7,609; auditors, 466. Class II—students, 5,422; auditors, 377. Class III—students, 3,319; auditors, 364.

An auditor here, as elsewhere, signifies one who is pursuing the studies of the course without having submitted to the regular examination for matriculation, and consequently is not allowed to enter the examinations for advancement (*promozione*), nor for a license or degree (*esame di licenza*).

II. TECHNICAL INSTITUTES.

The law of 1859 gave the appellation of technical institutes to those educational establishments wherein technical instruction of the second grade was to be given. It appeared, however, to enact that instruction of this grade should be as special as that of the first grade was general, directing that the technical institute be divided into special sections, as already described. It was attempted to realize this provision by the regulation of 1860, while technical instruction still appertained to the Department of Public Instruction. The institute was divided into four sections—the administrative and commercial, the agricultural, the chemical, the physical and mathematical sections. Contrary to the dispositions of the law which had fixed the duration of the course at three years, it was established that two years should be spent in the first three sections, and three in the fourth. The institute might be incomplete, or complete, that is, provided with all four sections, in which case the full corps of instructors included ten professors, three institutors (*istutori*) and supplementary teachers, with four assistants, the chairs being as follows: 1 professor of Italian literature, history, and geography; 1 of political economy and the history of commerce and industry; 1 of physics; 1 of general chemistry, and agricultural chemistry, with assaying; 1 of technological chemistry; 1 of natural history and the rudiments of the elements (*materie prime*); 1 of agriculture; 1 of mathematics; 1 of mechanics and the drawing of engines, and 1 of drawing; a supplementary master of English and the other modern languages; 1 of the elements of commercial and administrative law, and 1 of accounts; an assistant at the cabinet of physics, at the cabinet of general chemistry, and at the cabinet of natural history.

On November 28th, 1861, the technical institutes passed into the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, which had been established without well defined functions about eighteen months previously, the reason assigned for the transfer being that the function of the Department of Public Instruction was to make provisions for general culture, while that of the technical institutes is to give a special and final practical training, since no school but the workshop is to succeed them.

The Department of Agriculture and Commerce entered immediately into

activity; in 1862 a Superior Council of Technical Instruction was created, and charged with the same functions as those which the law of 1859 assigned to the Superior Council appointed to superintend all the other branches of public instruction. This new Council, which discharged its functions gratuitously, proved to be slow, and accomplished its work quite inefficiently.

Meanwhile, during the first four years of its existence, the Department of Agriculture and Commerce did not introduce any changes into the regulations of 1860. Experience showed that two years was an insufficient period for the sections of agriculture and commerce, nor did the three years devoted to physics and mathematics better meet the demand. The section of chemistry remained without students. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, which were corrected in some way or other, the number of government institutes was on the increase. In 1861-62 only six existed; at the close of 1865 the number of government, provincial, communal, and private institutes was 59, 33 being government institutes, 13 assimilated, and 13 non-state, of which last 5 were private establishments.

In October, 1865, the Department of Agriculture and Commerce issued new regulations, based on the experience of the institutes, calculated to give, so far as the administration was concerned, greater freedom to the institutes, but to restrict more and more the liberty of private instruction.

The title of government institutes was continued to those aided by the government, and which alone had the power to grant the regular diploma, after due examinations and the exhibition of all legal certificates. In order that a non-government institute may obtain this privilege it must become assimilated, that is, it must conform to the rules governing state institutions.

Each section of the institute, according to the regulations, imparts special instruction for a particular career or profession, in mechanical or commercial life, navigation or agriculture. In regard to expenditures, the salaries of masters was to be at the charge of the state, the premises and furniture at that of the commune, and the apparatus, engines, books, &c., at that of the province. Similarly, the state, the province, and the commune, were to have an equal share in the superintendence of the schools, through a local committee of supervision, consisting of four members; the first three being chosen by the provincial council, the communal council, and the chamber of commerce in union, the last two by the prefect of the province where the institute is located. The functions assigned to this committee in the administration and direction of the institute are very numerous. In regard to the curriculum, the local committee is called upon to act on proposals from the council of the institute in regard to the arrangement of hours, rules of discipline, examination subjects, text-books, detailed programmes, etc. The council of the institute, whose office it is to make proposals on such matters, consists of all the teachers, presided over by the *Præses*, or president of the institute itself. The natural result, whether for good or for evil, of this exercise of influence by the teachers is, that

there is much diversity among the technical institutes in regard to these matters.

The sections into which it was the main object of the regulations of 1865 to divide technical instruction were as follows:

1. Agriculture and land mensuration. Pupils receiving the certificate of license after due examination, were entitled to the appellation of "expert surveyor," and, if versed in sylviculture, to the additional title of "expert forest surveyor." They were furthermore acknowledged as "expert agronomists," could be admitted to the royal schools of veterinary medicine, and if acquainted with Latin, to the university course of chemistry and pharmaceutics, and enjoyed preference in the nomination to vacancies among the "forest guards," or the assistants in public works.

2. Commerce and administration. Those obtaining a license from this department received the diploma of "experts in commerce."

3. Mechanical construction, giving the title of experts in mechanics and construction.

4. Mercantile marine. Certificates granted in this section give their possessors the right to present themselves at the examinations prescribed, in order to obtain any of the following degrees from the minister of the navy: 1. Navigator of the high seas (*Capitano di lungo corso*). 2. Naval engineer of first class. 3. Ship builder of first class. 4. Captain of coasting vessels (*Capitano di gran cabotaggio*). 5. Naval engineer of second class. 6. Master. 7. Ship builder of second class.

5. Mineralogy and metallurgy. Licenses granted in this section give the title of experts in mineralogic and metallurgic industry.

6. Accounts, with the title expert accountants. Public offices are very often conferred upon expert accountants, whether government, provincial, or communal, and particularly places in savings banks.

7. Chemistry as applied to manufacturing and other industries.

8. Mechanical industries.

9. Physical and chemical industries.

Diplomas in the last three sections confer the title of experts in industry, with specifications of the particular branch to which the student has directed his attention theoretically and practically. The various branches are as follows: (*a*) tanning and dressing skins; (*b*) cotton and woollen manufactures; (*c*) industrial engraving and printing; (*d*) working in fat, acids, and soaps; (*e*) preparation of pharmaceutical substances; (*f*) wool and flax manufactures; (*g*) lithological industry; (*h*) silk and velvet manufacture; (*i*) science and art of coloring; (*j*) manufacture of scientific implements; (*k*) telegraphy; (*l*) manufacture of sulphur.

Such were the dispositions made by the regulations of 1865. But if they were carried out and found useful in respect to the administrative department, the same can not be said of those concerning the division of the institute into sections. Of the nine sections prescribed by the said regulations, only five were actually established, viz: the sections of agriculture, of commerce and administration with the addition of the section of ac-

counts, of physics and mathematics or mechanics and construction, of mineralogy and metallurgy, and of mercantile marine. But the number of these sections in each institute varies according to local circumstances.

In 1866, the section of naval education received a separate organization, being divided from the other sections of the institute. By the common consent of the Department of Agriculture and Commerce and the Department of Marine, naval instruction of the first degree was given in naval schools, that of the second degree by schools of mercantile marine. In the former is granted the title of *Capitano di gran cabotaggio*—ship builders or engineers of the second class—after due examination, which may be general for all degrees, or special for each special degree. The latter give the title of *Capitano di lungo corso*—first class ship builders and first class engineers.

Examinations in technical branches are, according to the regulations of 1865, of three kinds, each being both written and oral, viz: examinations for (1) admission to any class of the institute; (2) advancement from one class to the other; (3) license at the close of the course. A natural consequence of confiding the technical institutes and technical schools to different departments is, that examination before being admitted to the former is required of all candidates, whatever their previous history, although the regulations exempt the graduates of government or assimilated technical schools from such examination. The result is that many of the graduates of the latter do not present themselves, and that many of the candidates have not attended the technical school. Committees for the entrance examinations are appointed by the local municipal boards; those for the examinations for advancement (*esami di promozione*) are composed of the teachers of those subjects upon which the examinations are held. The presiding officer in both is the *Præses* of the institute. In 1868 a change was made in the mode of the examination, similar to that made the preceding year in the lyceum examinations for a license. According to the regulations of 1865 the license examinations, both oral and written, were to be held in every state institute by a local committee, consisting of the professors of each section respectively, with the addition of those persons whom the local Board of Vigilance might deem proper to add. This committee was to be divided into two sections, the former examining in Italian literature, geography, history, French, and English or German, with similar general subjects included in the programme of the examinations, the latter examining in those special subjects completing the programme of the various sections of the institute. But after 1868 the right of examining the written answers to the examination was given to a Central Committee or Board formed from the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, the rest of the examination being assigned to local committees, under the superintendence of one of the members of the Central Board. There are at the examination of both the summer and autumn session three themes selected from the programmes of instruction, as prescribed by the government, by the Central Board, the sealed package containing them being opened by

the delegates or commissioners of that Board in the presence of the candidates and the local committees. The candidates can choose among these themes.

Each examiner can give ten points, and an average of six points is the standard of approbation, but a rank of only five points on any one subject causes the candidate to be rejected, as does also a stand under six on three separate subjects, although candidates who fail on only three points are allowed another examination (*esame di riparazione*) when the autumn session is held.

The central board has discharged its duties well during these two years, the first of its existence, or at least has not been subject to those dissensions which have so much impeded the efficiency of the committees of the lyceum examinations for license, and which ought to have resulted in the dissolution of these last and the appointment of new committees by the Superior Council of Public Instruction from among its own members, which should be directed not to reject or approve of the candidates, but to give prizes to the most deserving, and to inspect the action of the examiners by giving the written answers a careful examination some time in the year. The chief cause of the difference in the results in the two cases is, that the local examination committees for the technical institutes are composed of professors connected with them, while the committees for the lyceums are composed of persons wholly unconnected with these institutions. Therefore the professors declared themselves hostile to the Classical Central Examination Board, but had no reason for assuming such an attitude to the Central Technical Board.

Statistics of Technical Institutes.

The number of technical institutes has rapidly increased, being 59 at the end of 1865, and 84 at the close of 1869. Of these 47 were government institutes, 35 communal and provincial, and two private. The number of students has also increased, being 880, of whom 600 were in state institutes, 142 in the assimilated, and 138 in the free; agronomy and land mensuration had 40 sections, with 350 candidates; commercial and administrative knowledge, 32 sections, 220 candidates; mechanics and construction—for a license, 24 sections, 126 candidates; for diploma, 12 sections, 51 candidates; mineralogy and metallurgy, 2 sections, 8 candidates; mercantile marine—*Capitani di lungo corso*, 5 sections, 53 candidates; *di gran cabotaggio*, 8 sections, 52 candidates; ship builders of first class, 5 sections, 11 candidates; engineers, 2 sections, 3 candidates; total, 130 sections, 880 candidates.

The results were as follows: approved—257 from state institutes; 65 from those assimilated; 58 from those free; total, 380. Deficient in not more than three subjects—280 from state institutes; 61 from those assimilated; 58 from those free; total, 399. Rejected—63 from state institutes; 16 from those assimilated; 22 from those free; total, 101.

Results arranged according to sections.

	Approved.	Deficient in not more than three subjects.	Rejected.	Percentage of Approbations.
Agronomy and land measuring,	132	166	52	38
Commercial and administrative knowledge,	93	108	19	42
Mechanics and construction—				
a. License,	47	59	20	38
b. Diploma,	20	32	5	35
Mineralogy and metallurgy,	2	5	1	25
Mercantile marine—				
a. <i>Capitani di lungo corso</i> ,	46	7	—	87
b. " <i>di grua cabotaggio</i> ,	28	20	4	54
c. Ship builders of first class,	9	2	—	82
d. Engineers,	3	—	—	100
Total,	380	339	101	43

The comparison of the ages of the candidates is curious and instructive, showing that pupils of the technical institutes are not recruited in a regular manner. There were 5 candidates of 15 years of age, 35 of 16, 85 of 17, 147 of 18, 164 of 19, 134 of 20, 107 of 21, 50 of 22, 43 of 23, 26 of 24, 21 of 25, 51 above 25, and 12 of unknown age.

Examination Fees.—Instruction in technical schools was, according to the law of 1859, gratuitous as in elementary schools, but a by-law of January 3d, 1867, fixed the following fees: 5 liras for admission examination, 8 for annual matriculation, and 10 for license examinations. Pupils of the technical institutes paid fees from the first. These last were fixed by the law of January 3d, 1867, at 30 liras for admission examinations, 40 for annual matriculation, and 60 for the license examinations.

Appointment and Salaries of Professors.—Titular professors in technical schools and institutes are by law chosen by competition, under the same rules as those which regulate the nominations to professorships in the gymnasium and lyceum. Owing to the haste which prevailed when these establishments were opened, the competitive examinations were dispensed with, and the teachers are, therefore, with some exceptions, much inferior to those needed, and which would have been obtained by a *concour*.

Technical masters receive the same salaries as those allowed to professors in the gymnasiums and lyceums, but these vary, according as the establishment belongs to the state, or to the commune, or to individuals, or an association, different contracts being made in different circumstances.

SUPERIOR TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

It was probably the intention of the framers of the law of 1859, to entirely separate classical and technical education, the former being completed by the university, the latter by superior technical institutes. But the law has not effected this object, as it has merely ordered that a Royal Superior Institute for technical education shall be opened at Milan, at the expense of the State, with the addition of a school of application (*scuola*

d'applicazione) for civil engineers, and another for land surveyors; and that teachers in superior technical institutes are to enjoy the title, rank, and salary of university professors.

Though such a regulation appeared to establish a superior technical training differing from university education, it, on the contrary, aimed at the opposite in the establishment of a school for engineers in Turin, which was also acknowledged as a department of the university faculty of physical and mathematical sciences.

It is natural that with such an ill defined basis, there should remain much doubt as to the proper method of combining superior technical training with middle and university education. Pupils are admitted to the university faculty of mathematics, on presenting a certificate of license from the third year of the physical and mathematical section of the institute, as equivalent to one from the classical lyceum. The result is, that the former course is preferred to the latter, there being two years less required. On the other hand, no pupils are admitted to the courses of the Superior Technical Institute who have not previously finished the first two years of the university faculty of mathematics, and undergone special examinations on subjects connected with it. Pupils may thus pass from a technical institute into a university faculty, and not into a superior technical institute. Meanwhile these two years in the faculty of mathematics might well be compressed into one, for those intending to embrace any of those careers for which the technical institute gives preliminary training; but there is no existing institution where this year could be thus employed. The municipal corporation of Milan, which has made a proposition to open such a school at its own expense, encounters serious difficulties, while the mathematical faculties of the universities oppose vigorously this step, as calculated to take away a large number of their present auditors, an opposition that is seconded by the ministry of public instruction, to which department the superior technical schools are assigned.

There are at present in Italy three technical institutes of the superior grad, viz: the Royal School of Application for Engineers at Turin, the Royal School of Application for Engineers at Naples, and the Superior Technical Institute at Milan.

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION IN THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

CLASSIFICATION.

THERE are three classes of institutions where instruction, which may be called superior, is imparted in the kingdom of Italy. 1. The Scientific and Literary Institute at Florence; 2. The Universities; 3. The Superior Technical Institutions. But the exact field of each of these classes of institutions has not been distinctly marked out or occupied. We must, therefore, examine each class by itself. Of the technical schools of all grades, we have spoken elsewhere.

I. SUPERIOR INSTITUTE AT FLORENCE.

The provisional government of Tuscany, in the year 1859, with a view of making the city of Florence a seat of learning, while it was in danger of losing its political importance as capital of a grand duchy, issued a decree to bring together and consolidate into one large institution, the different and scattered schools existing there at that time, whose origins were to be traced back to times more or less ancient. The government, therefore, created an Institute, consisting of five faculties or sections, viz: jurisprudence, belles lettres, philosophy, medicine and surgery, and the natural sciences. The end in view was to complete the university course by supplying to students the means of improving their studies in a practical as well as speculative direction.

The institution of new faculties is a clear proof that the legislator had no precise idea of what he intended to do, or that, as he himself avowed, he had not the means to execute it.

The courses in the faculty of jurisprudence were as follows: 1. Civil and commercial jurisprudence, and judiciary law, and the theory of evidences in penal judgment. 2. Criminal jurisprudence. 3. Civil judiciary law and theory of evidences. 4. Constitutional law. 5. Social economy. 6. Administrative law. 7. Statistics.

It is very strange, that in a high school of jurisprudence, the Roman law, and the history and philosophy of law should have been omitted.

The faculty of belles lettres and philosophy was constituted thus: 1. History of philosophy. 2. Oratory and Italian poetry. 3. Philosophy of history. 4. History of the Italian literature. 5. History and the art of war. 6. History of Italy. 7. Latin literature. 8. Indo-German languages. 9. Sanskrit. 10. Arabic language and literature. 11. Archeology. 12. Diplomacy and paleography. 13. Chinese language.

We need hardly point out the many defects and superfluities, and the extraordinary vagueness of the organization of this faculty.

The faculty of medicine and surgery consists of the following branches: 1. General clinical medicine. 2. General clinical surgery. 3. Clinical midwifery. 4. Clinical medicine for mental diseases. 5. Clinical medicine for ophthalmia. 6. Clinical medicine for cutaneous diseases. 7. Clinical medicine for venereal diseases. 8. Pathological anatomy. 9. Histological anatomy. 10. Organic pathological chemistry. 11. Experimental toxicology. 12. Legal medicine. 13. Pathological histology. 14. Medical botany. 15. History of medicine.

A secondary section follows, where students are taught: 1. Pharmacology. 2. Practical pharmaceutical chemistry. 3. Toxicology. 4. Organic pathological chemistry.

The faculty of natural sciences embraces: 1. Astronomy. 2. Physics. 3. Zoology, anatomy, and physiology. 4. Comparative Zoology, anatomy and physiology of invertebrates. 5. Botany. 6. Geology. 7. Metallurgy. 8. Mineralogy.

At first each chair was filled, but as time went by, and the majority of teachers in the new faculties of jurisprudence and belles lettres being political men, were called to other pursuits, most of the chairs became vacant, and the Italian government was unwilling or unable to fill them again. Such an unsettled state of things lasted till within the last few years, the faculties of jurisprudence and belles lettres not having their full staff of professors and their usual amount of students, a condition that was shared too by the faculty of natural sciences. The faculty of medicine and surgery alone continued in its old track.

By a decree of September 22, 1867, the character of the institution was radically modified. The faculty of jurisprudence, though unaffected by the decree, was practically abolished. The faculties of belles lettres and natural sciences were transformed into a normal school for teachers in secondary schools, delivering certificates to its students by which they were authorized to teach in their respective sciences. With respect to the faculty of medicine and surgery, its courses were distributed between the Florence institution and the universities of Pisa and Siena; the last two years being passed at the former, and the first four at the latter; the entire course consisting of six years.

Our readers will get an idea of the method of teaching adopted in the university, by examining the programme for the faculty of philosophy and philology (1868-69), which we here transcribe. It may be remarked that teachers give public lessons which any one may attend, and private instructions to which matriculated students alone are admitted. Public lessons are lectures of one hour, sometimes less; the private instructions, or entertainments, are called *conversazioni*, lasting about one hour, where students are at liberty to question the teachers, and must be prepared to answer questions in their turn.

Programme.

Italian literature (3 hours a week).—Two public lectures, one conversazione. The *Divina Commedia* will be expounded.

Latin literature (3 hours).—Two lectures, one conversazione, including lectures on phonology, morphology, and the historical motives of the epos, by expounding Virgil.

Greek literature (3 hours).—One lecture, two conversazioni. The lecture is on the history of Greek poetry; the conversazioni on the Attic dialect.

Archæology (3 hours).—Two lectures, one conversazione. Lectures on the antiquities of the African race.

Ancient and modern history (3 hours).—Two lectures and one conversazione. The lectures are on the history of Italy and the modern method of treating ancient history.

Pedagogy (1 hour).—On the means of developing man's intellectual power.

History of philosophy (3 hours).—One lecture, two conversazioni. Lecture on the history of theism from Leibnitz up to the beginning of the 19th century.

Moral and speculative philosophy (3 hours).—Two lectures and one conversazione. Lecture on moral philosophy, demonstrating the connection between the good and the true.

The above studies are compulsory. The following are optional:

Oriental languages, including lectures on Arabic and Sanskrit (2 hours each).

Diplomacy and paleography (3 hours).—Lectures.

Statistics (1 hour).—A lecture.

The Zend Avesta (1 hour).—A free course on its language and literature.

From the description we have given of the Florence Institution it will be seen that it fails to answer the purpose for which it was created. It is a normal school for teachers of secondary classical instruction, having chairs of Oriental languages in its section of belles lettres and philosophy, and a school for the last years of the course of medicine in its section of medicine. The chairs of natural sciences have an incomplete organization and no students.

In 1868–69, there were 157 students attending the Florence Institute; 16 attending the normal course, 24 in the complementary, and 16 in the special courses of philosophy and philology; 40 studying medicine; 24 pharmaceutics, of which ten were “regular” auditors; and 37 females in the midwifery class.

II. THE UNIVERSITIES.

Before we explain the present organization of the Italian universities, it will not be uninteresting to our readers to relate their history, the majority of which have had a common internal development, which was repeated in the various seats of learning that have sprung up on different occasions and for different purposes in the many states and towns of Italy.

Historical Development of existing Universities.

These seats of learning are now less numerous than they were in the middle ages. In our days there are no universities at Milan, Florence, or Vercelli; yet their number is still much too great, as will be seen hereafter. I shall confine myself to a short recital of the history of each of the existing universities, dividing them for this purpose into government or State universities and free universities, following with a history of their internal development.

1. *State Universities.*

BOLOGNA.—Among the Italian cities, which towards the close of the 11th century, claimed the right of independence, extending these claims later, during the long struggles between the church and the empire, Bologna was not the last; and beside taking a very important part in the events of that epoch, she acquired a loftier and more durable glory from the culture of knowledge.

At the very beginning of the 12th century, there came from Ravenna to Bologna Irnerius, who commenced lecturing on Justinian, collecting around him a select circle of pupils, among whom were Bulgaro, Martino, Ugeneo, and Giacomo. Then there came Graziano, who formed the digest of the decrees; and Piacentino and Azzone, the latter being obliged to lecture in the open air, as no room was large enough to contain the extraordinary concourse of pupils.

In the 13th century, the university of Bologna was adorned by Pier delle Vigne, the celebrated secretary of Frederick II, Accursius, Alessandro, and Giovanni d'Andrea; in the 14th, by Saliceto, Ancarano, Angelo e Bartolo da Sassoferrato; in the 15th, by Andrea Barbazzi, and Cartagni; in the 16th, by Alciato, Socino, Agostino Beri, and Ugo Boncompagni, who had for pupils, Riminaldo, Reginaldo Polo, and St. Charles Borromeo.

During the first centuries the chief boast of the University of Bologna was her juridical studies; yet she possessed, at all times, men highly distinguished in literature and the sciences. St. Thomas D'Aquino, Philelphus, Amaseus, Sigonius, Guglielmini, Malpighi, Galvani, Manfredi, Zantotti, Magnani, Mezzofanti, Schiassi, Gambarà, Rossi, Tomasasini, and three celebrated women, Anna Moradi, Laura Bassi, and Clotilde Tambroni, have surrounded the university of Bologna with a halo of immortal fame.

A great many eminent men carried on their studies at Bologna. From all parts of Europe there came select bands of youth thirsting after that learning of which Italy was then the fountain-head.

This university was governed by many successive constitutions. In the 16th century, she was headed by the so-called *Riformatori dello studio*, appointed by the senate and selected from among the various classes of citizens.

In the last centuries the university was divided into two, that of the Legists and that of the Artists. The degrees were likewise of two kinds, the one conferred the right of exercising the profession, the other that of lecturing at home on matters taught in some of the university departments.

The number of professorships varied very much, at different epochs; and so did the salaries of the incumbents, who were sometimes allowed large sums, owing to the ambition of the different universities to get the best masters. To them also the highest places in the public administration were open. They were frequently entrusted with important missions abroad. Such stimuli succeeded in keeping alive the love of learn-

ing, and to maintain, for many centuries, the reputation and glory of the *athæneum* of Bologna.

This university is now ruled by the papal bull *Quod Divina Sapientia*; by the decrees of the governor general of the Romagna, dated July 6th, September 30th, and October 25th, 1859; by a decree of the governor of *Æmilia*, March 8th, 1860; by the law of July 31, 1862, and by the regulations approved of by royal decrees of September 14, and October 5, 1862.

CAGLIARI.*—The university of Cagliari, founded by a bull of Paul V, dated February 12th, 1606, and by a diploma of Philip the Third, king of Spain, October 31st, 1620, was inaugurated in 1626, and owes its foundation to the suggestion of the Cortes General of the island in 1603.

Left by the Spanish government in utter neglect, the university gradually fell into such a miserable condition that, at the beginning of the 18th century, she was but a shadow of what she had been before. But when Sardinia passed under the rule of the house of Savoy, great pains were taken to restore the studies of the university, and first among the provisions conceded by the new government is the Cagliari university restoration act, dated June 28th, 1764, signed by Charles Emmanuel III, the ministry being then headed by Count Bogino.

On the 16th of August of the same year, the university constitutions were issued, and on the 3d of November the solemn inauguration took place. Several amendments were afterwards introduced into the constitution by the government of the king, that the university might meet the demands of the age. The royal letters patent of September 27th, 1842, contain the new provisions issued since the constitutions of 1764.

When the political reforms of 1848 took place, the Cagliari university complied with the laws, special and general, that were published from time to time. It is now governed by the laws of November 13, 1859, and July 31, 1862; and by the statutes of September 14, and October 5, 1862.

Among the eminent men that flourished at the university of Cagliari, the following cannot pass unnoticed: John Dexast, digester and expositor of the acts of the cortes general; Francesco Carbone, professor of Latin oratory, and a good writer in prose and verse; Domenico Alberto Azuni, Ludovicus Baille, and Giovanni Maria Dettori, who lectured on theology at Cagliari first, and afterwards at Turin, with immense success.

The university of Cagliari possesses a library, 24,000 volumes, many rare prints and manuscripts, a museum of zoology, mineralogy, and antiquities, founded by King Charles Felix in 1806.

CATANIA.†—For the first time, in 1437, the Sicilian parliament established a university in the town of Catania. In 1444, Eugene IV and Alphonse confirmed and raised her to a level with the university of Bologna. It was opened to public lectures in October, 1445. In 1533, she was declared equal with the universities of Salamanca, Valladolid, Rome, and Paris, by a decree of Charles V. In 1606, a diploma of Philip II reorgan-

* In the Island of Sardinia.

† In the Island of Sicily.

ized the studies, owing to the new scientific discoveries and innovations. A second reorganization took place during the reign of Charles VI (1729); and a third in 1827, when professorships for life were first instituted. In 1805, this university ceased to be the only one in Sicily, the academy of Palermo being, for political reasons, raised to the grade of university.

In virtue of the prodictatorial decrees of October 17th and 22d, 1860, the university of Catania was temporarily ruled by the provisions of the law of November 13th, 1859. In 1862, were issued the regulations which still govern her.

Aloysius Suppa, who lectured at Paris and distinguished himself at the Tridentine council; Francesco Provenzale, Andrea Lao or della Croce, Bonaventura Belluti, Vincenzo Raimondi, Rosario Scuderi, Francesco Ferrara, Giuseppe Crema, Nicola Intrigliolo, Mario Cotelli, Mauro Burgio, Giovanni Rizzari, Francesco Gastone, and Francesco Arrigo, whose works are consulted even now by studious men, are among the most eminent men of this university.

The faculty of medicine boasts of Philiston, Philonides, Bertamere, De-Branca, Antonio DeAlessandro, and Giuseppe Mirone.

GENOA.—The university of Genoa is governed by the laws of November 13th, 1859, and July 31st, 1862, and by the regulations of September 14th, and October 5th, 1862.

As far back as the 15th century, the city of Genoa possessed colleges of theologicians, lawyers, physicians, apothecaries, philosophers, men of letters, to which the privilege of conferring degrees was reserved. Sixtus IV, of Savona, was the donor of this privilege. In 1513, the Emperor Maximilian I confirmed it, putting them on a footing of equality with the most celebrated Italian universities. Men of the most illustrious families of Genoa, such as Fieschi, Doria, Grimaldi, Spinola, Salvago, Imperiali, Di Negro, Lomelloni, vied with each other in being ascribed to these colleges, out of which doges, senators, and ambassadors for the republic were chosen.

They boast of eminent men in all branches of learning, such as the Jurisconsults, Pier Battista Borgo, Cesare Coutardi, Rafaele Della Torre, and Giuseppe Lorenzo Casarego; the physicians, Fortunio Liceti, and Demetrius Canevari; the theologians, Cardinal Giuseppe Franzoni, and Andrea Fossa.

But the university of Genoa, properly called, was not founded till 1773, out of the revenues and in the palace belonging to the Jesuits, expelled from the territory of the republic the year before. Twenty-five chairs were instituted at first, and afterwards increased to thirty-two, divided under the five faculties of theology, law, medicine, the sciences, and literature. During the French domination, the chairs were reduced to twenty-seven, and the name of the university changed into that of academy, with scholastic jurisdiction over all the ancient dominions of the republic, S. Remo excepted, and over Lunigiana, Acqui, Alessandria, Asti, Bobbio, Casale, Tortona, Voghera, and Mondovi.

The chairs were increased by the kings of the house of Savoy, and though in 1816 the Jesuits were reintegrated into their former possessions, yet the university was maintained in her old splendor by means of revenues assigned to her by the state. Victor Emmanuel I, Charles Felix, Charles Alberto, and his son, Victor Emmanuel II, conferred many benefits on this university, whose chairs numbered fifty-four, at a recent period.

The university of Genoa is by no means inferior to any other in respect to illustrious men. We will mention the Marquis Gerolamo Serra, celebrated for his *History of the Republic of Genoa*; the Marquis Niccolò Grillo Cattaneo, a good writer of poetry; the Marquis Marcello Luigi Durazzo, an enthusiastic cultivator of the fine arts and the natural sciences; Cavaliere Giovanni Corti, a poet and man of letters; the Marquis Agostino Pareto; the Rev. Lorenzo Isnardi, known for his *History of the University of Genoa*, and many others, whom it would be too long to enumerate.

MACERATA.—The university of Macerata is governed by the papal bull *Quod Divina Sapientia*, and by the regulations dated September 14th, 1862.

Though there are some who contend that this university was founded in the first half of the 13th century, by the Emperor Frederic II, certain it is, after all, that it owes its origin to a brief of Nicolas IV, who established the university of Macerata, together with that of Montpellier, in the year 290. It appears from the archives of the community, that the communal rector informed, that year, the towns of Picaenum of the opening of the Macerata athenæum.

Seventy years after, Cardinal Egidio Albornoz, governor general of the Marche, founded a college of *avvocati* and *patrocinatori*, with the faculty of conferring degrees. Sixtus IV (1471), and Innocentius VIII (1481), sanctioned the university of Macerata. Paul III, of the Farnese family, reformed the school in 1540, adding new splendor to the university by assimilating it, in regard to rights and privileges, to the universities of Bologna and Padua.

In the year 1808, the government of the *Regno d'Italia* again reformed the studies, and founded a lyceum to which they added a faculty of jurisprudence with the right of conferring degrees.

After the restoration of the Papal government, Pius VII, by a decree of August 23d, 1816, reconstituted the university, and later she underwent the reforms introduced by the bull, August 28th, 1822, of Leo XII. In virtue of this new law, the university of Macerata was allowed four faculties, viz: theology, jurisprudence, medicine and surgery, and philosophy; each faculty having its own college, and each college conferring degrees, that of medicine and surgery excepted. To receive degrees in this last faculty, students were obliged to complete their studies at Bologna or Rome.

When the new Italian kingdom was formed, the commissioner entrusted with the provisional government of the province of Macerata, proceeded

to reform the university. The faculty of theology was suppressed; to the faculty of jurisprudence was added all those chairs which the law of November 13th, 1859, required. Shortly afterwards, owing to a resolution taken by the Minister of Public Instruction, this athenæum underwent a new reorganization.

Bonfinio, known for his excellent translations of Polybius, Philostrates, and Hermogenes, and for his *History of the Hungarian War*, which raged in his days; Astemio, Gualtieri, Bulgarini, Mazzoni Gherardi; Annibal Caro, the able translator of Virgil's *Æneid*; Mario Crescimbeni, Francesco da Macerata, Camozzi Giambattista, Zoffrio, Eustacchi, Pompejus and Pietro Paolo Floriani, the Rev. Matteo Ricci, and the Rev. Asclepi, Orazio Eugeni, Giuseppe and Michele Santarelli, etc., are among the most distinguished men of the university of Macerata.

MESSINA.*—The university of Messina is governed by the law of November 13th, 1859, modified according to the prodicatorial law of October 17th, 1860, and the prodicatorial decree of the 22d of the same month, and by the regulations of September 14th and October 5th, 1812, and the law of July 31st, same year.

Messina was known as a seat of learning from the earliest times. During the reign of Frederic II, there sprang up in that city an academy of letters, and later, under the tuition of Constantine Lascari, the Greek language was flourishing chiefly through Bembo and Gabrieli. The senate of Messina applied to king Alphonse for the grant of a university, which was conceded on the 20th of November, 1434. But the Roman court would not send its bull of approval, owing to the enmity existing between Eugene IV and king Alphonse. Under king John new applications were made. At length, under Charles V, a bull of Pope Paul III granted Messina a university (February 12th, 1549). This was opened with great solemnity, after many struggles, on the 24th of April, 1596. When the university fell by the hands of the mischievous Conte di Santo Stefano, all Sicily felt deeply so great a loss. In 1768, her college was raised to an academy. Finally, in 1838, a decree of the Neapolitan government restored the university to her former reputation and splendor.

The university of Messina prides herself on a large number of illustrious men.

MODENA.—The university of Modena is governed by the dictatorial decree of 21st October, 1859, by the dictatorial regulations of the same year and month, by the law of 31st July, 1862, and by the regulations of 14th September and 5th October, 1862.

As early as the 12th century, the school of Modena was celebrated under the appellation of *Studio*, wherein jurisprudence was taught, and which continued to flourish in the succeeding century, rivaling the university of Bologna and attracting to herself throngs of students, not only from the provinces of Modena, but from towns and provinces of other parts of Upper Italy. When the Emperor Frederic II, in 1222, suppressed the

* In the Island of Sicily.

university of Bologna, the students of the latter went partly to Padua and partly to Modena. To the chairs of jurisprudence, chairs of medicine and science were soon added. But, owing to the internal struggles which troubled the country towards the close of the 13th century, the *Studio* gradually fell into decay. All the efforts of the university to relieve it from its state of prostration, in 1306 and 1328, were fruitless. To the maintenance of such a state of things contributed in no small degree the political and economical conditions of the community, and more especially the foundation by the House of Este, of the university of Ferrara, which the students in the State of Ferrara were obliged exclusively to attend. At the beginning of the 15th century, however, the *Studio* of medicine began to rouse itself, and for about two centuries underwent no important changes, when, in 1678, the superior classes being removed to new premises, its schools increased, and its name of *Studio* transformed into that of *University*.

The community now purchased for the new university the right of conferring degrees, from the Emperor Leopold I, which right was afterwards confirmed by bulls of Benedict XIII and Clement XIV. The privileges and reputation of the university were enhanced by the favor of the then reigning duke, Francis II, in whose presence the opening of the university was solemnly celebrated (1683). In the year 1685, the same duke issued special statutes for the regulation of the university, which continued to work, more or less efficaciously, till 1772. During an interval of nearly a century (1685-1772), the situation of the university did not always remain the same; many changes took place, and it suffered terribly from wars and foreign invasions. We are indebted to Francis III for the reform and enlargement of the university of Modena (1772). He instituted a *Magistrato dei Riformatori degli studi*, increased the number of chairs to thirty, filling them with the most eminent men from his dominions and abroad, built a palace for the university, and promulgated the university statutes drawn up by a number of able men of his own choice; granted a free access to foreigners, augmented the small endowment of the institution by assigning to it the properties belonging to the suppressed Society of Jesus. His statutes were kept in full vigor till towards the end of the 18th century. The political connections which upset Italy about that time stripped the university of Modena of its privileges and splendor. Declared a lyceum in 1796 by the Cisalpine Republic, she was restored to her former name and rights by the same republic in 1800; then again deprived of her title and privileges in 1805, and again declared a lyceum. Some chairs, however, were left, by means of which studies could be fairly carried on after which they were completed at the university of Bologna. When the House of Este, after the fall of the Italian kingdom, was reintegrated to its dominions (1814), Francis IV, Duke of Modena, to engage the affections of his subjects (he was a clever and shrewd statesman), re-opened the university in 1815, reviving the statutes of Francis III. In 1821, frightened by a riot among the students, and fearing a revolution, the more

especially as the political events of that year had galled him in no small degree, he distributed the chairs of the university into several groups, scattering them all over his state, and assigning to each a certain number of students, who were obliged to live in colleges, subject to a most severe surveillance. There were three of these colleges, or *convitti*, in Modena; one for law, another for medicine and surgery, and a third for mathematical sciences; the last deserving special record as being a revival of the famous engineering school of Modena.

Unimportant modifications were brought into this university by the events of 1831; but in 1848 substantial changes took place. The *convitti* were abolished, and a new direction given to the studies. We owe such reforms to a committee of learned men, who drew up a new plan of studies, based on the famous statutes of 1772. This plan, though it never received the sanction of the sovereign, was followed, till the introduction of the present regulations, approved by a royal decree of the 14th September, 1862, swept away all former institutions.

The university of Modena was endowed at its birth, with a patrimony called first the university patrimony, and afterwards the patrimony of studies. This patrimony was originated by private bequests, to which royal donations were subsequently added. The annual revenue of the university property may be calculated in 700,000 livres.

It would require too much time to enumerate all the illustrious personages that belonged to the university of Modena; let us be satisfied with naming the following: Agostino Paradisi, Bartolomeo and Luigi Valdrighi, Giorlamo Tiraboschi, Marcantonio Parenti, Spallanzani, Bonaventura Corti, Giambattista Venturi, Count Filippo Re, Paolo Cassiani, Paolo Ruffini, Liberato Baccelli, Giuseppe Tramontini, Giovanni Brignoli de Brunnhof, Giambatista Amici, Bernardino Romazzini, Francesco Torti, Antonio Scarpa, Michele Rosa, Michele Araldi, Sante Fattori, etc.

Of moderns who studied at the University of Modena, it will suffice to mention Ludovico Antonio Muratori, and Carlo Goldoni.

NAPLES. The university of Naples is governed by the code of February 16, 1861, and July 31, 1862, and by the regulations of September 14 and October 5, 1862.

The university of Naples was born in 1224, when the Emperor Frederic II, through letters sent to all the cities of the realm, announced the convocation of the *studii generali*, at Naples. One of the chief objects he had in view when founding this institution, was to ruin the university at Bologna. He therefore made sundry provisions whereby students were to enjoy security of goods and persons, besides many privileges, his object being to attract the largest possible number of young men to the newly founded school. At the same time the inhabitants of the realm were forbidden to study at any other universities; no other schools were allowed to exist, the school of grammar and medicine at Salerno excepted.

How many chairs were first instituted is unknown; we only know of the first teachers, such as Roffredo Beneventano, Piero d' Isernia, Barto-

lomeo Pignatelli: but Tamsilla, the chronicler, affirms that the most celebrated doctors in all parts of the world were called to this university and allowed large salaries, and that young men in poor circumstances were furnished with the means of pursuing their studies.

It appears, however, that the school did not thrive; nor were the perpetual struggles between the Emperor and the Pope, and the calamities of incessant wars, likely to favor its development. In fact, within a short period of time it was twice reorganized (1234-1239). Where the university was situated is uncertain, but it is supposed with some probability that the *regione di nido* was the place.

Corrado and Manfredi, Frederic's sons, left the existing provisions untouched, but when the former entered Naples, after a long siege, the university was suppressed and transferred to Salerno, to punish the citizens for their desperate resistance. Shortly afterwards, however, Manfredi restored it to Naples. The Anjou conquest introduced sundry changes in the laws and regulations governing the university.

Charles I is said to have appointed a jurisdiction of the scholars, assisted by three assessors, one for the inhabitants of the realm, another for Italians generally, and a third for foreigners; and also to have vested in this jurisdiction the special cognizance of criminal offenses. The introduction of the titles of bachelor and licentiate is also attributed to him. A better distribution of the chairs took place; six faculties were instituted, medicine, canon law, civil law, theology, grammar, and logic.

During the reign of Charles I, the university of Naples was adorned by Andrea and Bartolomeo da Capua, Andrea Bonello, Filippo da Castrocelli, and St. Thomas d'Aquinas, to whom the king had assigned a monthly allowance of an ounce of gold (October 15, 1272). Giacomo Belvisio, Andrea d'Isernia, and Arnold da Villanoca, were famous under his successor, who intrusted the teaching of theology to the Friars of St. Domenico and St. Francesco, taking it from the university. He also appointed a rector to superintend the university, and promulgated restrictive laws for the other schools of the realm. Those of Sulmona and Bari were suppressed. The university of Naples maintained her supremacy and monopoly under Robert d'Anjou, when jurisprudence attained a high degree of development through Marino da Caramanico, Luca di Penna, Nicola Spinnella, and others.

Of the period which intervened between the death of Robert d'Anjou and that of Queen Giovanna, very little is known to us.

When the realm fell to the lot of Alphonso d'Aragona, and the din of arms had subsided, great efforts were made to reorganize the studies. The university was supplied with excellent professors, her privileges were revived, modified according to the progress of the times. Jurisprudence boasted of Andrea Mariconda and Paris del Pizzo; literature of Lorenzo Valle; law of Matteo d'Afflitto (under the reign of Ferdinand I, of Aragona); philosophy and medicine of Nicola Verna, and Greek literature of Constantino Lascari. The faculty of theology was taken from the Friars

and given to the university once more, to which Ferdinand's statutes *de scholaribus doctōrandis* attributed the power of conferring degrees.

Internal troubles and the Spanish conquest brought the university into a low condition again. Ferdinand the Catholic sold the jurisdiction to the township, and the viceroys soon abolished all the remaining privileges; the rectorship of the university was entrusted to the royal chaplain major; the chairs were the recompense of intrigues; degrees were bought; teachers and students fell into contempt; the corruption was greatest about that time (1516); the university schools had been removed to the palace of the archbishop; but Cardinal Caraffa, seeing great impropriety in such a mixture of things sacred and profane, proceeded to build an edifice for the students, and called it *La Sapienza*. He died before carrying out his scheme, and the new buildings became a nunnery. The university repaired to the atrium of the church of St. Domenico, where she remained until Count Lemos (1599) the Viceroy, proceeded to a radical reform, modeled on the statutes of the university of Salamanca. When he thought the Atheneum of Naples sufficiently well organized, he transferred it to the palace where the national museum is now to be found.

But the provisions of the viceroy and his statutes *de regimine studiorum*, failed in extirpating the old and inveterate abuses. Towards the close of the 16th century or the beginning of the next, a struggle between the university of Salerno and that at Naples ensued, originated because the former had the privilege of conferring degrees without matriculation or attendance on the part of students. Attracted by such extraordinary privileges, young men flocked to Salerno in large numbers. The struggle, suspended when the university of Naples obtained the like privilege, was soon renewed, and ended only with the fall of the school of Salerno in 1816.

Meanwhile the university lay in complete prostration, from which it seemed to recover at the beginning of the 18th century, amidst the bustle of the war of the Spanish succession. The barons petitioned His Apostolic Majesty for redress of grievances and abuses in the university; the Austrian viceroys proceeded to a reform. The faculties were at that time distributed under the following heads: civil law, canon law, theology, medicine, philosophy, mathematical sciences, rhetoric. Arento was charged with drawing up a plan of reform, which was accepted by the authorities, but never carried out. Celestino Gulliani drew up another, which was equally unsuccessful. Later, however, Charles III expressed approval of it, and immediately proceeded to its application. At that epoch, the Jesuits being driven away from Naples, the university was installed in their convent, where it still remains.

The French occupation paralyzed the progress of this university, but on the other hand instilled more liberal ideas into the minds both of teachers and students. After the restoration of the Bourbons and the political commotions of 1821, it fell into decay. Amidst troubles and suspicions of a political nature, the fame of its prominent men, such as Nicola Nico-

lini, Sementini, Galuppi, did not succeed in raising it to that degree of splendor which could be reasonably expected from its bright tradition.

PALERMO.* The university of Palermo is governed by the law of November 13, 1859, modified according to the prodicatorial law of October 17, 1860; by the prodicatorial decrees of October 20 and November 5, 1860, and by the regulations of September 14 and October 5, 1860.

The university of Palermo is very ancient, but the date of its foundation is uncertain. It is known only that she was put under the direction of the Jesuits soon after she was established. In 1639, by special privilege from Philip IV, confirmed in 1685, she was authorized to confer degrees in philosophy and theology. After the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767, a committee of instruction was appointed to direct the chairs left vacant, the museum, the library, the printing office, being soon succeeded by the committee of studies (1778). The university was installed in the *Collegium Maximum*. The new committee increased the number of chairs, and the studies were divided into four faculties, viz: theology, law, medicine, and philosophy. In 1784 the power to confer degrees was confirmed to them. The curriculum of studies consisted of five years for divinity, and three for the other faculties. In 1779 the botanical garden was founded, and in 1790 the astronomical observatory, under the superintendence of Giuseppe Piazzi, the celebrated astronomer.

When the Jesuits returned to the Island all the houses and schools that had formerly belonged to them were restored to their old possessors. The *Collegium Maximum* followed the common lot. It was then that a royal message (1805) ordered the university to be transferred to the house of the *Padri Teatini* and gave it the power of conferring degrees. New statutes were drawn up; a deputation appointed by the king, together with a rector selected from the said *Padri Teatini*, and a vice-rector, were entrusted with the management of the studies. A new distribution of chairs took place; a museum of antiquities and a pinacotheca were founded.

In 1841 the university received new statutes, and new chairs were created. In 1860 the law of 13th November, 1859, was applied to Sicily. A dictatorial decree of the same year added sundry chairs to those existing; cabinets of physiology, zoology, anatomy, geodesy, and midwifery, were established, the old ones augmented, particularly those of physics, chemistry, mineralogy, and geology. The clerical schools were installed in the *Monastero della concezione*.

Many renowned professors have lectured at the university of Palermo; let us record Francesco Cani, Paolo Filipponi, Vincenzo Fontana, Stefano Dichiarà, Rosario Gregorio, Cameli Controscero, Vincenzo Sergio, Paolo Balsamo, Rosario Scuderi, Bernardino da Uaria, Guiseppe Piazzi, Domenico Scina, Rosario Porpora, Marvuglia, Velasquez, etc.

PARMA. The university of Parma is governed by the dictatorial decree of October 18 and 21, 1859; by the dictatorial regulations of October

* In the Island of Sicily.

22, same year; by the law of July 31, 1862, and by the regulations of September 14 and October 5, same year.

The studio of Parma had its origin with the dawning of modern civilization, being traced as far back as the 11th century, when the office of master of the schools already existed. We know that in the 12th century, grammar, literature, philosophy, arithmetic, geometry, music, astronomy, and later, jurisprudence, were taught in the studio of Parma. It suffered very much from the patronage granted by John XXII to the university of Bologna, and subsequently from that granted by the Visconti to Pavia. When the state fell into the hands of Niccola da Este, the university was restored. The Visconti suppressed it in 1420; but it sprung up again when Parma framed herself into a republic (1448). Again Francis Sforza suppressed it in 1454. Parma then applied to convents for education.

At the beginning of the 16th century Parma conferred degrees in theology, law, philosophy, and medicine. The descent of Francis I into Italy broke up the whole organization of the studies, which were revived under the first Farnese. In 1601 the university was solemnly re-opened, and lasted till the extinction of the Farnese dynasty, which gave rise to wars and troubles. In 1768 she was restored, and lived till 1805, when the French occupation changed her into an academy. A repristination took place in 1814, and a suppression in 1850 under Charles III of Bourbons. The university was reconstituted in 1854, and new chairs were added in 1859.

We will mention, among the most illustrious men of the university of Parma, Pope Martin IV (13th century); Biagio Pelacane (15th); Nicco Tedeschi, Alessandro and Cesare Delfino (17th); the Rev. Soave, Cossali, Angelo Mazza, Gherardo De Rossi (18th); Gian Domenico Romagnosi, Pietro Rubini, Giacomo Tommasini, Macedonio Melloni, Angelo Pezzana, Pietro Giordano (19th).

PADUA. The university of Padua was born in the 13th century, but the edifice wherein she is installed was commenced towards the end of the 15th century, and completed in the middle of the succeeding one, from a design attributed to Sansovino.

Besides the great academical hall and offices of the university authorities, there are lecture rooms, and cabinets of physics, natural history, and anatomy. The schools of medicine, surgery, and midwifery, as well as a cabinet of pathological anatomy, are situated in the civil hospital. A laboratory of chemistry and pharmaceutics is located in a house next the premises of the university. Other scientific establishments are attached to the latter, such as a botanical garden, one of the oldest in Europe, and the oldest in Italy; an astronomical observatory, founded by the Venitian Senate in 1769, and a library containing upwards of 100,000 volumes, and 1,400 codes of the 13th and 14th centuries.

The university of Padua consists of five faculties: theology, jurisprudence and political science, medicine and surgery, the mathematical sciences, literature and philosophy. Each faculty has its director and one dean, who are its representatives in the academical senate, presided

over by a rector selected annually from among the professors on the proposal of the academical body.

Next to the faculty of literature and philosophy, there is a seminary of philology and history, founded July, 1855, for the purpose of affording students an opportunity to improve their learning and prepare for lecturing as professors in secondary schools.

Eight scholarships, worth 42 florins each, called stipendj, are open in this seminary to poor students who distinguish themselves, and are subsidized by occasional grants from government. Other scholarships were founded in the other faculties, to be assigned to the most promising young men belonging to poor families.

Lectures on theology were given of late in the so-called central seminary, where there are scholarships for all the Venitian provinces, at the rate of four scholarships for each forty parishes. Moreover, many private bequests supply the means of encouraging young men of small fortunes.

The *Englisch* college, founded in 1446, gives annual pensions of 140 florins each to two medical students, of whom one must be a native of Padua or its district, the other alternately a native of Treviso or Terra di Muggia. The management of the funds is entrusted to the university, and the conferring of scholarships is reserved to the central government, on the proposal of the directors of the medical department and a surviving member of the *Dottori* family.

The *San Marco* college supplies two yearly pensions of 140 florins each, to one student of law and one student of mathematical sciences, both born and living in the province of Padua, the conferring of which belongs to the government on the proposal of the directors of the two departments concerned.

The *Cattaneo-greco* college furnishes an annual pension of 140 florins to one student born a Greek, whatever course of studies he chooses to enter.

There is furthermore, one *Amuleo* college, founded by Cardinal da Mula, in his will of the 15th of January, 1556, in behalf of students belonging to the nobility of Venice. About this college, however, there exists now a suit between the university and the heirs of Da Mula.

In fine, the college of *Santa Catarina di Venezia* maintains eight scholarships of 300 florins each, in the university of Padua, in behalf of the most promising and needy young men coming out of its own secondary schools.

In virtue of a decree of the 13th November, 1805, issued by the Kingdom of Italy, the department of mathematical sciences was managed so as to allow aspirants to the free exercise of engineering, to complete, after a curriculum of three years, their studies under the tuition of private engineers. A decree dated October 13, 1807, abolished this usage, and established a practical course of two years besides the existing one, according to the statutes of the other Italian schools.

Meanwhile, those students of mathematical sciences who had completed their curriculum at the university of Padua in the year 1866-67, were allowed to continue their old practice.

PAVIA. The university of Pavia is governed by the laws of the 13th of November, 1859, and the 31st of July, 1862, and by the regulations issued October 5, same year.

A tradition assigned the foundation of this university to Charlemagne. Certain is it, however, that Pavia, in the 8th century, boasted of a flourishing school of grammar, since Charlemagne himself took from it Petro da Pisa, a celebrated grammarian, in order to keep him as his master; and the Emperor Lotharius in a capitular dated Corteolona, 825, designated Pavia as the seat of learning for the young men of eleven other towns, viz: Milan, Como, Brixia, Lodi, Bergamo, Novara, Vercelli, Tortona, Acqui, Genoa, and Asti. We also know that in the times of Octo I, a school for law in Pavia was highly celebrated, and adorned, among other excellent men, by Lavfranc, who became later, Archbishop of Canterbury. Charles IV, in a letter patent dated April 13, 1361, stated, "*ut in civitate Papiæ generale studium utriusque juris, videlicet tam Canonici quam civilis, nec non Philosophiæ, Medicinæ et Artium Liberalium erigatur, et ea nunc perpetuis temporibus observata,*" and then he went on enumerating all the privileges the university was to enjoy. These privileges were confirmed by Bonifacius IX, in his bull of the 16th of November, 1389. Towards the end of the 14th century the university of Pavia acquired no small reputation through the celebrated lecturers called thither by Galeazzo II and Giovan Galeazzo, such as Filippo Cassoli, Cristoforo Castiglioni, Raffaele Fulgorio, Baldo da Perugia, etc.

Though the war that broke out about that time in Lombardy caused the school to be removed to Piacenza, lessons were still delivered at Pavia, where the university again repaired in 1403, to enjoy a most flourishing life, and pride itself on the most famous men of the age: Giasone del Majno, Filippo Decio, Lorenzo Valla, Francesco Filelfo, Antonio Guainerio, Giovanni Matteo Ferrari da Grado, etc. Its conditions became more and more excellent under the patronage of Ludovico il Moro.

In the 16th century, when Lombardy was allowed a short rest from the wars that desolated it, the university was blessed with a new period of enviable prosperity. We will mention here, among the most celebrated men that adorned it at that time, Andrea Alciato, Girolamo Cardano a physician and mathematician, Giovanni Battista Carcano Leone the anatomist. With respect to the number of students, suffice it to say, that in 1585 the said anatomist, Carcano Leone, lectured to more than three hundred pupils, among whom renowned physicians, philosophers, and men of letters, were to be found.

But the Spanish domination during the first half of the 17th century, exercised a pernicious influence on the university, whose condition might be said to have fallen very low. Under the rule of Maria Teresa, a new life invigorated all the institutions of Lombardy, and the university of Pavia shared the common lot. She was enlarged and richly endowed, so that she could rival any of the most celebrated universities of Europe. Nor was it an idle boast, the saying of Lorenzo Mascheroni, that Alessandro Volta, Antonio Scarpa, Lazzaro Spallanzani, Giovanni Pietro

Frank, and others of world-wide fame, who taught at Pavia: *Parlano un suon che tutta Europa ascolta*. This advance was continued under the republic and the kingdom of Italy, and reached its farthest point when the voices of Vincenzo Monti, Ugo Foscolo, and Gian Domenico Romagnosi, were heard within the walls of the university.

PISA. The university of Pisa is regulated by the sovereign resolution of the 2d of November, 1843; by the decrees of the Tuscan government, July 31 and November 8, 1859, February 9 and March 10, 1860; by the law of July 31, 1862, and by the statutes of September 14 and October 5, same year.


The university of Pisa, according to the most creditable authorities, may be said to have had her commencement towards the close of the 12th century. In 1338, when the republic of Pisa was flourishing, Count Fazio di Donoratico, general-in-chief of its army, directed all his efforts towards adorning and enlarging the school, which he supplied with excellent professors, for whom were established ample salaries. Later, Clement VI, and the Emperor Charles IV, endowed her with titles and privileges. But political troubles and the incessant wars waged between parties, were anything but favorable to a peaceful development of the university.

When Pisa became a subject to Florence, its university was left for a long time in utter neglect, until, during the domination of Lorenzo il Magnifico, the rectors of the Florentine republic proceeded to restore her. In 1472 she was solemnly re-opened, and allowed an annuity of 6,000 florins for her own maintenance. A superintendent general was appointed to survey and refer to a committee of five members on the condition of the university. This committee was composed of men distinguished for having sustained high offices in the state, and known by the appellation of *ufficiali dello studio*. They lived in Florence, and retained the supreme direction of the atheneum for one year. Lorenzo de Medici was himself one of the committee.

From 1479 to 1486 we see the university wandering from place to place; twice from Pisa to Prato; once to Pistoja, for fear of the pestilence. But Lorenzo de Medici gave it at last a permanent seat.

When both Florence and Tuscany became an hereditary state in the Medici family, the university of Pisa was revived by Cosimo I, who entrusted Lelio and Francesco Torelli with the compilation of new statutes, and got permission from Pius IV to assign the university some annuities to be levied on the church tenements in Tuscany. At the time of Cosimo II (1609-1621), the university's yearly expenditure amounted to 15,000 scudi (*lire italiane* 88,200), a sum inferior only to that of the studio of Padua.

Not less care was taken of the Pisan university by the grand dukes of the house of Lorraine, who succeeded to the house of Medici in 1737. At the beginning of the present century the French domination changed the university into an academy, dependent upon the great university of France. In 1814, Tuscany being given back to the grand dukes, Ferdinand III



reorganized the university and gave her new statutes, which lasted till 1840, when Leopold II, assisted by Gaetano Giorgini, superintendent-general of studies in Tuscany, called her to a new and brighter life, increased the number of chairs, invited the best masters from all parts of Italy, and founded a school of agriculture and a school of veterinary surgery. To all these benefits he added, in 1846, the founding a normal superior school for the teaching of philosophy, mathematical and physical sciences. But in 1851, a disastrous and well nigh fatal decree, dated October 28th, suppressed the universities of Pisa and Siena, and the schools of agriculture and veterinary surgery, and created a Tuscan university; the faculties of theology and jurisprudence being at Siena, and those of philosophy, philology, medicine and surgery, mathematical and natural sciences at Pisa. This lamentable state of things lasted till the 30th of April, 1859, when the provisional government of Tuscany repealed the fatal decree, restored the two universities, and gave them the means of increasing their splendor.

The number of illustrious men who have lectured at the university of Pisa is very large. Let us record: Bartolo, Francesco da Buti, Decio, Sandei, Bargeo, Mercuriale, Cesalpino, Galileo Galilei, Malpighi, Borelli, Grandi, Neris, Marchetti, Bellini, Cocchi, Pignotti, Perelli, Paoli, Frisi, Corsini, Ciampi, the two Vaccà-Berlinghieri, Carmignani, Gaetano Savi, Regnoli, Mossatti, Rosini, des Rosso, etc.

SASSARI.*—The university of Sassari is governed by the laws of June 22d, 1857, and November 13th, 1859, and July 5th, 1860; and by the regulations of September 14th, and October 5th, 1862.

The university was opened at Sassari in the 16th century. Don Gaspare Vico and Don Alessio Fontana, in their wills, dated February 27th, 1558, and January 8th, 1606, respectively, supplied the means of further developing her instructions. The bishops of Sassari and Oristano, and the township of Sassari gave the university a splendid endowment. The town was entrusted with the management of the university until the time when Sardinia fell under the rule of the Spanish crown, and was obliged to purchase, at a very high price, the right of conferring degrees.

Charles Emmanuel III, of the house of Savoy, reorganized the university of Sassari by a letter patent, dated July 4th, 1765, making her absolutely dependent upon government. The university, however, before and after the restoration, lived on the revenues of its own estates, of which it had the management. But in 1852, its property passed to the general agency of finances, the management being entrusted to the *ufficio del demanio*.

Divinity, civil law, canon law, medicine and surgery, philosophy, and pharmaceutics were taught at the university of Sassari. In 1852, the government assigned the study of philosophy to the lyceum, taking it from the university. Since that year, the number of students has been rapidly decreasing, and the existence of the university has become precarious.

SIENA.—The university of Siena is governed by the sovereign resolu-

* In the Island of Sardinia.

tion of November 20th, 1843; by the decrees of the Tuscan government, July 31st, and November 8th, 1859, February 14th, and March 9th and 10th, 1860; by the law of the 31st of July, 1862, and by the regulations issued September 14th, and October 15th, 1862.

The university of Siena is of ancient but uncertain origin. Reliable authorities affirm, that in 1203, Siena had doctors and scholars. In 1240, she was in full life, as we gather from the catalogue of all the masters that lectured at this university, who acquired a high reputation for learning from the concourse of eminent masters and pupils from Bologna. It soon lost its splendor, but in 1357 recovered it, owing to the munificence of the emperor Charles IV. Again decay seized upon it, and again a rise took place towards the close of the 14th century. Gregory XII granted it the privilege of conferring degrees in divinity; Nicholas V increased its patrimony; Pius II added new privileges to the existing ones, and the grand dukes Ferdinand I and Cosimo III took it under their patronage. On the 25th of November, 1805, a decree was issued by the French government abolishing the university of Siena, and leaving the theological college the right of conferring degrees. Soon afterwards, however, the medical college was allowed the same privilege, owing to an extraordinary deficiency of medical men in the province of Siena.

On the return of Ferdinand II, of Lorraine, the university was revived, and lasted till 1851, when an inconsiderate decree, dated October 25th, blended the Tuscan universities into one. In 1859, the provisional government repealed that act, and restored the university of Siena.

The Sienese athenæum boasts of a large number of illustrious masters and scholars. We will confine ourselves to the following ones: in divinity and philosophy, Thomas da Sarzana, afterwards Nicholas V; Fra Francesco della Rovere, afterwards Sixtus IV; Fra Gherardo da Siena, who lectured at Paris and Bologna; Fra Antonio Ugurgeri, who obtained many privileges for the university of Siena from the emperor Charles IV; Fra Bartolomeo di Giovanni; Fra Giustino Primatini; Domenico Stratico; the Abbé Luigi de Angelis; Girolamo Gigli, etc.

In jurisprudence, Jacopo Pagliaresi DéGrandi di Siena, Francesco Accolti, nicknamed the Prince of Jurisconsults, Ubaldino Malavalti, Bartolomeo Sozzini, Francisco Cosci, Giovanni Battista Borghese, Alessandro Turamoni, etc.

In the medical and physical sciences, Francisco Casini (15th century), afterwards physician to Urbanus VI; Marco and Ugo Bensi; Francesco and Giovanni Sernini, (the latter became physician to Callistus III and Pius II); Pier Andrea Mattioli (16th), afterwards physician to the Elector of Saxony and the emperor Maximilian at Vienna; Cipriano Casolani (17th); Mattia Baldi, physician to Alexander VII; Pirro Maria Gabrielli; Cresenzio Vaselli; Giuseppe Vespa; Baldassare and Amborgio Soldani; Pietro Tabarrini; Paolo Mascagui (18th); and in our own century, Giacomo Bargellotti, Maximilian Ricca, Giuseppe Giuli, Giuseppe Pianigiari, Sante Linari, Giovanni Battista, and Giuseppe Vajelli, etc.

TURIN.—The university of Turin is regulated by the laws of November 13, 1859, and July 31, 1862, and by the statutes of September 14, and October 5, 1862.

The university of Turin was founded in 1405 by Louis of Savoy, Prince of Piedmont. In 1412, it obtained its rights and privileges from the emperor Sigismund, and in 1424, Amedeus VIII organized a council of direction of the university, composed of the governor general and three other members, who were called reformers (*riformatori*). Some years afterwards it was transferred to Chieri, on account of the wars of that time; then again from Chieri to Savigliano, and in 1436 restored to Turin. Emmanuel Philibert, in 1516, gave new life to the institution, reformed the council of direction, and established separate faculties. Still further improvements were made by Victor Amedeus II, to whom Piedmont owed in no small degree its welfare and strength. He built the magnificent palace of the university, called to it illustrious professors from other parts of Italy, from France and other countries, founded the college of the Provinces for the support and education of poor and talented pupils, and established the botanic garden. Charles Emmanuel III was not less eager in promoting the prosperity of the institution, promulgating a code of academic laws, which, in its time, was the most complete in Europe.

Meanwhile, to Charles Emmanuel III, succeeded, in 1773, Victor Amedeus III. During the reign of this prince, wholly engrossed with wars, the university suffered very much from lack of patronage. When the French revolution came on, and the king quitted Piedmont to retire to Sardinia, the discipline was much relaxed. But in 1800, an executive committee, known by the appellation of *Tre Carli*, (Botta, Bossi, and Giulio,) proceeded to a complete reform of the studies and the statutes.

In 1805, there came the imperial constitution of Napoleon, to which the decrees of 1808 and 1809 followed, changing the university of Turin into an academy, and making it an essential part of the French university.

These statutes lasted until the fall of Napoleon I, when Piedmont was given back to the house of Savoy. The laws promulgated in 1771, by Charles Emmanuel III, were revived, but did not answer the requirements of the times. Charles Albert modified and improved them, created many chairs, built the magnificent new anatomical theatre, enriched the botanic garden and museums, and founded a new era of national independence, freedom, and of scientific glory in the annals of public instruction in Sardinia.

The palace of the university, built in 1714, according to the design of Ricca, stands on the widest and most beautiful thoroughfare of the city, the great street along the Po, which is adorned on both sides with wide and lofty arcades.

The university consists of five faculties, theology, jurisprudence, medicine and surgery, belles lettres and philosophy, physical and mathematical sciences. Connected with the university are the following collections, open to the professors and to the scholars and to the people at large: a

public library, founded by Emmanuel Philibert, endowed by other kings, especially by Victor Amadeus II, enriched by private donations, and containing upwards of one hundred and ten thousand volumes; an anatomical theatre, founded by Charles Albert; an anatomical pathological museum, chemical laboratories and an amphitheatre, a botanic garden, a cabinet of physical apparatus, an astronomical observatory, a hydraulic building, a zoological museum, a mineralogical museum, a museum of antiquities, and an Egyptian museum, which is, perhaps, the most complete in Europe.

Connected with the university, and under the direction of the government, there is a royal college of the provinces, founded and endowed by the munificence of the kings of Sardinia, and enriched by legacies of private benevolence. This is an establishment in which the students are furnished with free board and lodging through all the course of the university, and with every aid in their studies and education. The royal college of the provinces disposes of about one hundred and fifty free places, which are given as a reward to those students who have passed the most successful examinations.

Many celebrated scholars have, since its beginning, given honor to the name of the university of Turin, among whom we may mention: Cara, who lived in the 15th century, a lawyer as well as a Latin scholar of great celebrity, who attracted to his lectures distinguished audiences, not only from every part of Italy, but even from France, Spain, and Germany. In the 16th century, Cujacius, that miracle of legal erudition, left Toulouse, his native country, and repaired to this university. In the same century and the same institution, Argentieri taught medical science, and Benedetti mathematical astronomy. Thesaurix in the 17th century, was celebrated among Latin scholars, in the 18th, the university could boast of a Gerdil in moral philosophy, of Alcavio and Bono in jurisprudence, of Cigua in anatomy and physiology, of Bertraudi, Brognone, and Puchienati in surgery, of Donati the botanist, who, by his extensive travels in Asia, enriched the garden of the university with many precious treasures; of Alhoni, who proposed a new classification of the vegetable kingdom; of Michelotti, celebrated in hydraulics, and of Beccaria, who divided with Franklin the laurels of the discovery of electricity; of Cina, Denina, Caluso, Alfieri, Baretti, Nagnoni, Durandi, etc. In the present century, the university of Turin was adorned by Bardi, Alardi, Gridis, Bessone, Giulio, Rolando, Balbi, Vassalli, Eandi, Bonelli, Borson, Bonvicino, Giobert, Bidone, Luzzanga, Alfieri, Berardi, Carlo Botta, Cesare Balbo, Sciolla, Tarliti, Boucheron, Giovanni Plana, Alberto Nota, Carlo Marengo, Silvio Pellico, Dettori, Regis, Vasco, Barbaroux, Casale, Paravia, Cauchy, Avogadro, Vernazza, Carena, Gazzera, Bottero, Gene, Martini, Riberi, etc.

There are but few institutions in Europe better provided with buildings for lecturing, and for residences, with libraries, laboratories, collections of all kinds, and all the material aids of scientific instruction, than the University of Turin.

2. *Free Universities.*

Besides the State Universities, supported mainly by the government, there are four institutions of this class supported by municipalities or by endowments, which are designated Free Universities.

CAMERINO.—The university of Camerino is governed by the royal decree of the 24th of January, 1861, and by its own statutes.

The origin of this university is very ancient, but uncertain. From the commencement of the domination of the Varani (1260), till their fall (1550), it was in a flourishing condition, several members of the Varani family acting as lecturers at the university.

The first statutes were approved of by Innocent III (1198), and Honorius III (1240). New ones were sanctioned in 1336, by Benedictus XII, by Innocent VII in 1355, and by the commissioners at the council of Costanza in 1416. We infer from the statutes and briefs of Martin V (1424), Clemens VII (1523), Paul III (1543), Paul IV (1555), and Pius IV (1562), that there existed a very ancient college of twenty-one doctors, specially entrusted with the teaching of canon and civil law, medicine, and belles lettres, without whose consent no one could exercise medical or legal professions. Thus if the *studio* of Camerino did not possess, under the Varano domination, the appearance and name of a university, it was in fact endowed with the substance thereof, embodied in these two extremes: teaching in primary faculties, and the conferring of degrees. The scientific institutions outlived the downfall of that ill-starred dynasty by will of Paul III, and Paul V in his brief of July 5, 1695.

Benedictus XIII, in his brief of the 1st of July, 1727, declaring Camerino to be *præcipua Umbriæ civitas*, granted the ancient *studio* the title of university, and recognized *collegium unius et viginti jurisconsultorum variis præcipuisque privilegiis ornatum*. The emperor Francis I extended the efficacy of the degrees granted by this university to all his dominions.

Under the French domination, the university was suppressed, though living by its own revenues; yet it retained its own autonomy as a gymnasium, without of course, the privilege of conferring degrees. When the Papal government was restored, Pius VII granted temporarily the title of university to the *studio* of Camerino (1816). Leo XII's bull *Quod Divina Sapientia* of the 1st of September, 1824, reorganized the system of education, and classified the university of Camerino third in importance among the five universities in his dominions.

A royal decree, dated January 24, 1861, after the annexation of Umbria and the Marche to the Italian kingdom, proclaimed this university free, confining it to the two faculties of jurisprudence, and medicine and surgery, with the right of conferring degrees.

From the close of the 13th century to the middle of the 16th. a series of illustrious men did honor to the university of Camerino. Let us mention Angelo I, Angelo II, Francesco, Antonio, Alberto, Tommaso of the Varano family; Ansovino Medici, Giovanni Ricuzio Vellino, Angelo III, author of the treaty *de præscriptionibus*; Cardinal Luca Ridolfucci, called

jurisperitus celeberrimus sui temporis. Ugolino; Varino Favorino, Macario Muzzi, Francisco Sperali, Flaustro Alessandro, Tardoli Luca, etc.

The second half of the 16th century was not less fertile in eminent men, among whom we will not let pass unnoticed, Silvio Foschi, Venanzo Lucarelli, Giulio Leonelli, Paolo Tanaroni, Giuseppe Favorino, Angelo Angelozzi, Ludovico Paoloni, Francesco Peribenedetti, Domenico Cimichetti, Angelo Ridolfini, Camillo Lili, Fulvio Magalotti, Angelo Rocca, who founded a library at Rome containing more than 40,000 volumes, etc.

In the 18th century, we find recorded, Masdeo, Ludenna, Sparapani, Paunelli, Casser, Sartarelli, Fracheroli, etc.; and in the present century, Fedeli, the theologician; Pizzicanti, canon law; Constantini, civil law; Ottaviani and Lattanzi, medicine.

This university has an annual income of 35,469 Italian liras.

FERRARA.—The university of Ferrara is governed by a decree of the governor of Emilia, dated February 14th, 1860, by the royal decrees of January 24th and 31st, 1861, and by its own statutes.

The existence of a regular university at Ferrara may be traced as far back as 1391, when Bonifacius IX gave Alberto da Este the license for instituting it. Old and undisputed tradition, however, assigns the foundation of the institute to the emperor Frederic II (1238 or 1240). Bonifacius IX assimilated the university of Ferrara to those of Bologna and Paris, and, as at Rome, called it *La Sapienza*. During the domination of the house of Este and for a century after, the *studio* brought forth many celebrated men. Its juriconsults enjoyed such a high fame, that the republic of Genoa and the duke of Savoy, in the 17th century, made a compromise with them. Its theologicians were sought after in the famous lawsuit at the divorce of Henry VIII of England (1534); and so great was the merit of Tartagni, that in 1448, a derogation to the statutes was made, in order to aggregate him to the *collegio degli avvocati* of Ferrara. Besides, history records the names of Aurispa, Barbazza, Gaza, Gaurico, Valla, Gambiglioni, Accolti, Ancarani, Saliceti, Benci, Leoniceno, Molza, Fallopio, Antoniano, Zocchi, Brasavolo, Canani, Bianchini, Giraldi, Novara, Sandeo, Carbone, Pigna, Piccolomini, Cremonini, Nigricoli, and others.

The palace of the university, called *paradiso*, was built by Alberto da Este, but the *studio* was installed in it only in 1567.

The superintendence to the divers classes of studies was entrusted to the *Rettori dei Legisti* and *Rettori degli Artisti*, (thus were all, not students of law, then called); above whom were four *reformers* or *riformatori*, two of them appointed by the marquesses (afterwards dukes) of Ferrara, two by the town, besides the colleges of the various faculties, which we find recorded in the 15th century. Many statutes were issued, especially after the annexation of Ferrara to the dominions of the Holy See, which took place in 1598. But for radical reforms we are indebted to Clemens XIV (1772), and Pius VI (1778).

The university was closed, and a *liceo-convitto* instituted, under the French invasion (1796), when a special school of hydraulics was added at Fer-

rara, as its territory was found the most fit for practical studies in that branch of science, owing to the great amount of water flowing through it, and the neighborhood of the Po. Meanwhile a bull from Leo XII (1824), gave the studies a new direction, when in 1860, in virtue of a decree of the Italian government, the university of Ferrara was declared free, the Ministry of Public Instruction approving of its statutes.

PERUGIA.—The university of Perugia is governed by the decrees of the commissary general for Umbria, dated December 15 and 16, 1860, by the royal decrees of Jan. 24 and 31, 1861, and by its own statutes.

It was founded in 1276, when the town council sent a legate to the neighboring towns and villages to invite young men to the *studio* of Perugia.

The management of the university was vested in the said council. At the beginning of the 14th century, however, a part of their authority was transferred to a committee of five members, called the *cinque savi*, and in 1322, we find a *rettore degli studi*, nominated by the students. The right of appointing masters was vested in the supreme magistrate of the town.

In this manner the university of Perugia was governed till 1625, when Urbanus VIII, with a view of reforming the *studio*, issued a brief abolishing the meddling of the *savi* and of the townships in matters connected with the athenæum, and entrusting the local bishop *pro tempore* with the management, on condition, however, that no resolution of his should be enacted without the *beneplacito* of the Holy See.

Many and important privileges were granted by Clemens V, who declared it a university (14th century), by John XXII, who gave it the right of conferring academical degrees (1320), and by the emperor Charles IV.

The most illustrious professors that lectured in this university are :

Cino da Pistoja, Bartolo Alfani, and Baldo Baldeschi, 14th century. Paolo da Castro, Pierfilippo della Cornia, Camillo Baglioni, Giovanni Matteo, Periteo Montesperelli, Sforza Oddi, etc., 15th and 16th centuries. Gianpaolo Lancellotti, Vincenzo Bini, Giuseppe Antinori, etc., 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries. S. Thomas d' Aquino taught theology here.

URBINO.—The university of Urbino is governed by the royal decrees of January 24, 1861, and October, 1862, and by its own statutes.

Urbino, the old seat of the dukes of Feltre and Rovere, had from the earliest times two patrons, Frederic and Guidobaldo (the former's son). The latter instituted a college of doctors, having jurisdiction in matters civil and ecclesiastical, which was confirmed in 1507, by a bull of Julius II. On the 21st of February, 1564, Pius IV granted it the privilege of conferring degrees, which was confirmed by Urbanus VIII, with the addition of new ones. Innocentius X (1647), Clemens X (1671), Clemens XI, and the *Regno Italico*, lavished innumerable favors upon it. From 1824 to 1861, it was governed by the bull of Leo XII, *Quod Divina Sapientia*, and finally, October 23, 1862, it was declared a free university by Victor Emmanuel II.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE PAPAL DOMINION.

AREA.—POPULATION.—HISTORY.

THE rise of the Popedom, as a temporal power, dates from the year 755, when Pepin, King of the Franks, granted to the Pontiff the *exarchate* of Ravenna, to which Charlemagne added the provinces of Perugia and Spoleto. The Emperor Henry III., in 1003, increased these possessions by the city of Benevento, and in 1102 the Marchioness Matilda of Tuscany, bequeathed to the Holy See the provinces known as the *Patrimony of St. Peter*. Other provinces and cities were added to it in course of time, till the Papal dominion reached its largest extent in 1649. In 1798, Rome was taken by the French, and in 1810 the whole of the Papal States were included in the kingdom of Italy. The Congress of Vienna restored the greater part to the sovereign Pontiff; but, in consequence of an insurrection, the Romagna detached itself from the Papal rule in 1859, and in 1860 the Marches and Umbria followed. At the present time (1869,) the States of the Church are composed of the following provinces or legations.

	Square miles.	Population.
Rome and the Comarca.....	1,847.....	326,509
Viterbo... ..	1,176.....	128,324
Civita Vecchia.....	405.....	20,701
Velletri.....	687.....	62,013
Frosinone.....	784.....	154,559
	<hr/> 4,899	<hr/> 692,106

The principal cities are Rome, with 215,578 inhabitants (1867); Velletri, 12,482; Alatri, 10,500; Frosinone, 8,000; Civita Vecchia, 10,000; Viterbo, 14,000; Ronciglione, 6,000.

The legislative and executive powers of the government of the Papal States, theoretically in the sovereign Pontiff, are exercised by a cabinet of ministers, divided into seven departments, of which the Cardinal Secretary of State is president.

At the side of the cabinet of ministers stands the Council of State, consisting of nine ordinary and six extraordinary members, presided over by a cardinal. The most important affairs to be regulated by this council are projects of new laws, the interpretation of laws and of superior

orders, questions of competency between ministers, the approbation of all the acts of the provincial councils, &c.

The third council is the so-called "consulta of state for the finances," composed of councilors chosen by the Pope, out of a list nominated by the provincial authorities, whose duty it is to examine and revise the budget and accounts of the state. The general supervision of all the educational institutions is committed to a Commissioner of Studies, while the local management of the elementary schools is assigned to a committee, of which the parish priest is one. The means of elementary education are provided either by parish schools, or by schools conducted by various religious orders devoted by their vows to teaching.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The oldest schools of Rome are the ward schools (*écoles régionales*), which were reorganized by Leo XII. (1823-'29.)

Numerous schools were founded by individuals or religious bodies, the most important are the so-called (*écoles pies*) *pious schools*, founded in 1597 by Joseph Calasengio, a Spaniard. In 1655, Alexander VII. founded the so-called *Pontifical schools*, which are maintained out of the Pope's private treasury. In 1661 the Sisters of the Child Jesus, in 1688 the Ursulines, in 1702 the Brothers of the Christian Schools, and in 1707 the *Maestrie Pie* founded their first schools. Others followed; thus, in 1727, the Fathers of the Christian Doctrine were first called to Rome by Benedict XIII., and in the same year opened their first school. In 1784, Pascal di Peltro, a layman, founded the first deaf-mute institute. During the first half of the 19th century, quite a number of schools were opened by different religious sisterhoods, such as the Ladies of the Sacred Heart in 1827, the Sisters of St. Joseph of the Apparition in 1832, the Sisters of St. Dorothy in 1839, and the Sisters of St. Andrew in 1841.

Colleges and schools of superior instruction were likewise early established; among them, the most famous is the University della Sapienza, founded in 1303 by Boniface VIII. He established not only faculties of civil and canonical law but of medicine and philosophy. New privileges were granted to this institution by John XXII. (1316-'34,) who was a philosopher and physician himself. Nicholas V. modified and perfected the course of studies. Alexander VII. (1665-'67) finished the magnificent building now occupied by this institution, commenced the library and established six new professorships, among these one of ecclesiastical controversy and history. Innocent XI. (1676-'89) founded an anatomical museum and Clemens XI. (1700-'21) a botanical garden. Benedict XIV., who ascended the Papal throne in 1740, devoted great attention to the University; the method of instruction was thoroughly revised; physics were taught according to all the latest discoveries; new professorships of chemistry and mathematics were established, and a chemical laboratory and a physical cabinet founded. Pius VI. (1775-'98) instituted three new professorships, viz.: one of obstetrics, one of special sur-

gery, and one of elementary theology. During the period of the French revolution the institution languished on account of the constant political disturbances, but was solemnly reopened in 1801, when two new professorships (natural history and mineralogy,) together with a mineralogical and geological cabinet were established. In 1806, a professorship of veterinary surgery was founded. According to the regulations (August 28, 1824,) which are still in force, the University has 82 professorships, large museums, library, observatory, &c.

Another important institution of superior instruction is the *Collegio Romano* (*Universita Gregoriana*), founded in a very humble manner, in the year 1551, by Ignatius Loyola. In 1564, Pius IV. took the institution under his protection. His successors provided a large and magnificent building, and favored the institution in every way possible, so that at the present day it is one of the best equipped and endowed in Italy.

Numerous institutions, partly of a superior and partly of a secondary grade, but all having accommodations for residence of pupils and professors, were established at an early date, such as the *Collegio Baudinelli* in 1678, the *Collegio Capranica* in 1458, the *Collegio Clementino* in 1596, the German College in 1552, the *Collegio Ghislieri* in 1680, and various others. Several seminaries, institutions specially intended for students of theology, were also established, viz.: the Seminary of the Vatican in 1636, the Roman Seminary in 1560, the Ecclesiastical Academy, founded by Clement II. in 1706, and of quite recently the *Seminaire Pie*, established by Pius IX. in 1858. Besides these there are ecclesiastical colleges at Rome, established at different times for the special accommodation of students of the several nations, Irish, Scotch, Greek, Americans, &c. The famous missionary school, "*de propaganda fide*," was founded by Gregory XV. in 1622.

In 1859, just before the changes which reduced the Papal States, with a population of 3,006,771 on an area of 17,210 English square miles, to 692,106 inhabitants, on an area of 4,899 English square miles, there were the following elementary institutions in the 1,219 cities, towns and villages of the Dominion: 2,993 communal schools for boys, with 70,000 scholars; 1,892 schools for girls, with 58,848 scholars, making a total of 4,885 schools with 128,848 scholars; besides numerous private schools. The number of colleges and seminaries in the same year was 107, with 5,876 students.

As regards the present state of education in the provinces which compose the Papal Dominion outside of Rome we have no official statistics.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

INTRODUCTION.

THE Empire of France, [exclusive of the colonies,] on an area of 206,676 English square miles in 1866, had a population of 38,067,094. In 1856, there were, among a total population of 36,012,669: 19,064,071 employed in agriculture, 10,469,961 in mechanical arts, and 1,632,331 in commercial pursuits.

The total expenditure in 1867 amounted to 1,902,111,370 francs, of which sum 28,344,121 francs were expended for public instruction under the following ministries, and with the following statistics:

FIRST.—UNDER THE MINISTRY OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION:

1. *Primary Instruction.*

53,957 Public Schools, in 37,548 Communes, with 2,461,492 pupils.

16,714 Private Elementary Schools, with 978,258 pupils.

8,669 Infant Schools, with 432,141 pupils.

82,883 Adult Courses, with 829,555 scholars.

Total, 106,723 Schools, with 4,701,446 scholars.

2. *Secondary Instruction.*

83 Lyceums, with 36,306 students.

253 Communal Colleges, with 32,453 students—making a total of 326 government schools, with 68,759 students, of whom 17,209 follow the Special Secondary Course.

934 Non-governmental Secondary Schools, with 77,906 students.

Total, 1,270 Institutions, with 146,664 students.

3. *Superior Instruction.*

8 Faculties or Schools of Theology, with 46 professors.

11 Faculties of Law, with 100 professors and 4,895 students.

16 Faculties of Science, with 119 professors.

16 Faculties of Literature, with 102 professors.

22 Preparatory Schools of Medicine and Pharmacy, with 190 professors.

3 Higher Schools of Medicine, with 66 professors and 1,780 students.

Total, 76 Institutions of the highest instruction, with 602 professors.

4. *Special Schools.*

1 Normal School for Teachers in Infant Asylums at Paris.

1 Superior Normal School for Professors in Lyceums and the Faculties of Letters and Science at Paris, with 110 pupils and 23 professors.

1 Normal School for Secondary Special Instruction at Cluny.

84 Primary Normal Schools for male teachers, with 449 professors.

12 Primary Normal Schools for female teachers.

1 Primary Normal Course for male teachers, with 12 professors.

49 Primary Normal Courses for female teachers.

3 Schools of Living Oriental Tongues, with 9 professors.

1 Course of Archæology in connection with Cabinet of Medals.

1 French School of Archæology and Greek Literature at Athens.

1 Imperial School of Records (*école des chartes*) at Paris, to prepare pupils for librarians and keepers of public archives.

1 Museum of Natural History at Paris, with 16 professors.

1 School of Sacred Music at Paris.

1 Imperial College of France, with 31 professors.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

- 1 Special School of Drawing for Young Women at Paris.
- 1 National Conservatory of Music at Paris: 87 professors.
- 6 Provincial Schools of Music: 6 professors, (at Dijon, Nantes, Metz, Lille, Toulouse, Marseilles.)
- 1 Institution for the Blind at Paris, besides 6 provincial schools.
- 2 National Institutions for Deaf-mutes at Paris and Bordeaux, besides 41 private and municipal schools.
- 1 Central Correctional House of Education at Paris.

SECOND.—MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND PUBLIC WORKS:

- 8 Imperial Schools of Agriculture at Grand-Jouan, Grignon, and La Saulsaie, with 24 professors.
- 9 Agricultural Courses, with 11 professors.
- 1 National Agronomic Institute at Versailles.
- 70 School-farms.
- 1 Practical School of Irrigation and Drainage at Lizardeau; 2 professors.
- 1 National School of Horse-breeding.
- 8 Imperial Sheep-folds and Cow-houses (*bergeries and vacheries*.)
- 8 Schools of Veterinary Surgery at Alfort, Lyons, Toulouse, with 18 professors.
- 1 Superior School of Commerce at Paris; 1 School of Chamber of Commerce at Paris.
- 1 Imperial School of Bridges and Roads at Paris; 22 professors.
- 8 Imperial Schools of Mines, viz., at Paris, 15 professors; at St. Etienne, 8 professors; at Alais, 1 professor.
- 1 Imperial Conservatory of Arts and Industry at Paris; 19 professors.
- 1 Central School of Arts and Manufactures at Paris; 28 professors.
- 8 Imperial Schools of Arts and Industry, at Aix, Angers, Chalons-sur-Marne; 32 professors.
- School of Watchmaking at Cluses (Savoy,) besides several provincial schools.

THIRD.—MINISTRY OF WAR:

- 1 Imperial Polytechnic School at Paris; 22 professors, 19 assistants, and 850 pupils.
- 1 Special Military School at St. Cyr; 33 professors.
- 1 Staff-school (*ecole du corps d'état-major*) at Paris; 19 professors.
- 1 School of Artillery and Military Engineering [*ecole d'application de l'artillerie et du génie*] at Metz, with 28 professors.
- 1 Imperial School of Cavalry at Saumur; 40 professors.
- 1 Cavalry-musicians' school [*ecole de trompettes*] at Saumur.
- 1 Imperial School of Military Medicine and Pharmacy at Paris; 13 professors.
- 1 Imperial School for the Sanitary Service at Strasburg; 12 professors.
- 1 Normal Shooting-school (*ecole normale de tir*;) 11 teachers.
- 1 Normal School of Military Gymnastics at Vincennes; 8 teachers.
- 1 Imperial Prytaneum (orphans of officers) at La Flèche; 25 professors.
- 11 Regimental Schools of Artillery.
- 8 Regimental Schools of Engineering.
- 5 Military Gymnasiums.
- 1 Military Musical Gymnasium at Paris.
- 1 Bureau of Longitudes; 6 professors.
- 1 Imperial Observatory; 18 professors, assistants and calculators.

Regimental schools for the infantry of the line exist in all the corps.

FOURTH.—MINISTRY OF MARINE AND THE COLONIES:

- 1 School of Naval Architecture at Paris, with 30 pupils; 8 professors.
- 1 Practical School of Maritime Engineering at L'Orient; 9 professors.
- 1 Imperial Naval School at Brest; 11 professors.
- 42 National Schools of Hydrography; 42 professors.
- 8 Imperial Schools of Naval Pharmacy and Medicine at Brest, Rochefort, and Toulon; 15 professors.
- 6 Nautical School-ships; 5 Naval Apprentice Schools; 2 Schools for Naval Engineers and Stokers; 2 Naval Drawing Schools.

FIFTH.—MINISTRY OF FINANCE:

- 1 Imperial School of Forestry at Nancy; 8 professors.
- 1 School of the Manufacture of Tobacco at Paris; 7 professors.

SIXTH.—MINISTRY OF THE FINE ARTS AND THE IMPERIAL HOUSEHOLD:

- 4 Imperial Schools of the Fine Arts; at Paris, Rome, Lyons, and Dijon.
- 1 National Special School of Drawing and Mathematics applied to the Industrial Arts, at Paris.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

PERIOD I.—*Earliest Times to 1789.*

From the earliest appearance of the country now known as France in authentic history, we recognize the school,—the place and agency for the training of children and youth in language and science, and their useful applications,—among the forces which shape and direct the opinions, actions and habits of the people. The Druids, according to Cæsar, were not only the priests, jurists, and judges of Ancient Gaul, but the teachers,—“they hold a great many discourses about the stars and their motions, about the extent of the universe, and of various countries, about the nature of things, and the power of the immortal gods, and transmit their opinions and knowledge to the young.”

Long before Cæsar, with his legions, carried the arms and jurisprudence of Rome, into both eastern and western Gaul, a Greek colony had been planted on the shores of the Mediterranean, by the mouth of the Rhone; and there the schools of Marseilles had become the dispensers of Greek culture, not only to its citizens, but to disciples from all parts of Gaul and Germany. Cicero and Tacitus both mention the schools of this commercial city, and the latter, other schools which had sprung up in the interior, and especially those of Autun. And in the second century of the Christian era, all the great centers of population, Narbonne, Lyons, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Arles, Besancon, and Treves, had not only many public institutions, but also private schools under eminent teachers, in which the best authors of Greece and Rome were studied as classics in that day. The subjects taught in these schools were philosophy, medicine, law, belles lettres, grammar, and all the favorite studies of those times. They were largely frequented, and enjoyed many privileges from the imperial government.

The division of the Roman empire into the eastern and western, A. D. 395, proved in no wise injurious to public instruction, as each of the rival governments vied with the other in raising the standard of the existing institutions, and in founding new ones. Libraries were established about this time in connection with the more prominent schools; and numerous writers were constantly employed in copying important works.

The institutions founded and maintained by the Roman government were, during the first three or four centuries of the Christian era, the only schools in Gaul; teachers had, before entering on their duties, to undergo a public competitive examination; by imperial decree they were free from all taxes, from serving in war, and drew their salary from the government

treasury. The scholars were already at that time divided into three classes, viz.: the *externi* living outside of the institution, the *convictores*, who, at their own expense, lived in the institution, and the *alimentarii*, who lived at the school enjoying public or private stipends.

During the 5th century, the imperial and municipal schools lost their former importance, the pagan civilization was fast dying out, and Christian science and culture began slowly to develop itself.

About this time (first half of the 5th century) the first Christian institutions of learning were founded in connection with monasteries, and especially in the south of France, when they soon became the schools of Christian philosophy, where many new and bold ideas were started. In general, however, but little advance was made in education during the reign of the Merovingian dynasty. The general character of this period is a concentration of all mental activity on religious subjects. The cathedral schools had taken the place of the great municipal schools; besides these the clergy founded, in many parts of the country, small preparatory schools. The most important cathedral schools were at Poitiers, Paris, Le Mans, Bourges, Vienne, Clermont, Arles, &c.; and the most famous convent-schools at Luxeuil, St. Vandrille in Normandy, Soissons, &c. The subjects of instruction had likewise changed; the old names were there still, rhetorics, dialectics, grammar, &c., but these studies were only pursued in their relation to theology; some went even further, and banished all *profane* science from the system of instruction. During the 6th century the bishop of Vienne, who was teaching grammar in his school, was reminded by Gregory of Tours, "that it was not suitable that lips consecrated for the service of the Lord should open for the praise of Jupiter."

The seventh century marks the darkest epoch in public instruction; ignorance and stupid fanaticism had reached an unparalleled height; but the turning-point was near at hand. The genius of Charlemagne (768-814) kindled anew the almost dying flame of science and education. The difficulties which he had to encounter would, to others, have appeared insurmountable. But setting himself the glorious example of redeeming lost time by sitting down to learn, when already far advanced in age, he overcame all these difficulties, founded new schools at important points over his vast empire, and infused new life into the old cathedral and convent-schools. Many learned foreigners were called to his court, prominent among whom was Alcuin, who became the teacher of the emperor, and was entrusted with the superintendence of the *court-school*, which served as a model for all the other schools, and was attended not only by children of courtiers and noblemen, but by many poor children, who gave evidence of talent.

In the 10th and 11th centuries Paris became more and more the centre of learning, and many were the illustrious men, who taught there. The university of Paris* dates its origin from a decree of Philipp Augustus, and the privileges granted by pope Innocenz III. in 1203. In the latter

* See History of Universities in the middle ages, in Special Report on Superior Education.

half of the 13th century the faculty of theology was added to the already existing ones, and the institution was now complete. Other universities were founded, such as Montpellier, Cahors, Perpignan, Aix, Angers, Dole, Caen, Poitiers, Valence, Nantes, Bourges, and Bordeaux. In course of time these universities became the only centres for higher studies, and by the side of them the cathedral and convent-school imparted only very meagre instruction, to educate young men for the clerical order.

Thus in Paris, the doctors of theology and "magistri artium" gave instruction in the higher branches, whilst there were elementary schools in nearly all the smaller parishes under the Grand Chanter.* Besides these schools maintained by the clergy, every large town had one or more schools kept by laymen, but as they were all based on individual effort

*With regard to the elementary schools of Paris, in the 14th century, the Bishop, the highest traditional authority in school matters, delegated to an officer of his Metropolitan church, who bore the title of *Ecolatre*, or master of the schools, as well as of *Chanter*, master of the singing, all the powers necessary to the administration of these schools. The following are the most important statutes :

1. All male and female teachers are required to attend at the festival of St. Jean Porte Latine, to hear the exhortation of the Grand Chanter, or his deputy, the reading of the ordinances, and to answer to their names, in the order of the parishes in which they hold their schools, under forfeiture of a fine of eight Paris sous.

2. The said masters and mistresses shall take an obligation, to give all honor and reverence to the said Grand-Chanter, who is their chief, and with all their power to maintain the rights of the Chantry.

3. They promise and swear that they will faithfully execute the duties of their office, in instructing the pupils of their schools in good morals and in the sciences, and to this end they will hear the catechism twice a week, on Wednesday and Saturday.

4. All masters and mistresses must maintain peace and harmony among themselves, and any disagreement on school-matters should be referred to the Grand-Chanter, under pain of a fine or of losing their school.

5. No master or mistress shall defame the character of a co-laborer, under forfeiture of their school.

6. No teacher shall keep an assistant who has been or resides with another teacher, unless between the school from which he comes, and the one which he enters, there is a distance of three schools, under pain of forfeiting the teachership.

7. No teacher shall receive in his or her school any children, who have left other schools, if word has been given, that salary remains due to the teacher, whom they left, under punishment of fine and of paying to said teacher his dues.

8. No teacher shall induce children of other schools to enter his schools by any means whatever.

9. All teachers of boys' schools are forbidden to receive girls in school, and the female teachers to teach boys, under any pretext whatever, under pain of losing their place.

10. It is expressly forbidden to all teachers to unite their schools for the sake of company or common advantage ; assistants may be employed with permission of the Grand-Chanter.

11. No priest or reader, who holds a church-benefice, can keep school in the jurisdiction of the Grand-Chanter, without permission from the latter.

12. No other person shall teach school in this city and its suburbs, without letters from the Grand-Chanter, under pain of being arrested.

13. All male and female teachers must surrender their license to the Grand-Chanter, or his deputy, on the evening of St. Nicholas day, in order to have a new license issued, if thought proper.

14. It is expressly forbidden, to all teachers to keep or lodge with them a person of defamed or suspected character, under pain of being deprived of their school.

15. It is expressly forbidden to teachers to conduct, or permit to be conducted, their pupils through the city on horseback or otherwise, in fantastic dress, with tambour, trumpets, or any other instruments, under forfeiture of a fine of 100 Paris sous.

for their success they had no lasting existence. Only when the burghers of the cities became more powerful and independent were town-schools instituted and maintained by the corporations. Even in the villages and hamlets there were to be found, according to Budaeus, small schools for reading and the elements of grammar.

Besides the cathedral and convent schools, the great universities in the large towns, the adventure schools of gifted and energetic individuals, and the permanent establishments of the great religious orders—the Augustines, Benedictines, Dominicans, Franciscans—which drew the instruction of children and youth into their labors for the church, there sprang into wide-spread activity in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, a number of societies and congregations which made teaching their principal, and even exclusive province. These societies were normal schools of methods, and professional training schools of teachers; and the labors of their members constitute an important chapter, not only in the annals of school education in France, but in the development of modern pedagogy.* Although suspended for a time, and apparently swept out of existence by the revolutionary legislation which began on the 19th of February, 1790, and was consummated by the decree of April 6, 1792, these orders and congregations, with many under other names, were never in such active and wide-spread operations as now. A brief notice of a few out of the forty educational or teaching orders in operation in France in 1789, will be given.

The first monastery which followed the rule of St. Benedict, was founded at Monte Casino, in the kingdom of Naples, about 529, by St. Benedict himself, and the order, which at one time numbered 37,000 houses, was one of the main agents for the spread of christianity, civilization, and learning, in the west. They included in their branches several orders, such as that of Cluny, founded in 910; the Cistercians, founded in 1020; the congregations of Monte Casino in 1408; Saint Vanne in 1600, and

16. The teachers are enjoined by the Grand-Chanter to have their names at their doors and windows, that they may be found easily.

17. None are permitted to change their residence without giving notice at the Grand-Chanter's office.

18. Between every two schools shall be a distance of twenty houses in not thickly settled districts, and of ten houses in better peopled districts.

19. All male and female teachers are required to assemble on the days of St. Nicholas, in winter and summer, at the first mass, and to pay to the confraternity their accustomed dues, and on the next day to attend the service and charities of the confraternity.

20. Teachers are enjoined to report to the Grand-Chanter, any person teaching in school without license.

21. All teachers must assist at mass, obseques, and funeral service, when requested.

22. All teachers, after the close of Synod, must go to the church of Notre Dame, say three *Pater* and *Ave*, that our Lord Jesus Christ through the intercession of the glorious virgin Mary, and of St. Nicholas their patron, may give them grace to be able well to govern and instruct the children committed to their care; and give grace also to the children, to the pleasure and happiness of their parents and friends, and to the well-being of their souls. For this we pray to God the Father, the Son and the Holy Spirit, who is blessed forever: Amen!

* A history of the Benedictines, Hieronymians, Plarists, Jesuits, the Brothers of St. Barnabas and St. Paul, of the Christian Schools, as well as of various teaching societies and congregations of women, will be given in a "*Special Report on Normal Schools, Teachers' Associations, and other institutions and agencies for the professional training and improvement of teachers.*"

St. Maur in 1627. To the latter was affiliated all the Benedictine houses in France. About the year 1705 a school was instituted in connection with the monastery at St. Florent de Saumur, which gradually assumed a permanent form, and was followed by similar organizations in other parts of France, until they embraced in 1789 twenty academic houses, and performed a large educational work at the principal centres of population. The history of this order, especially of the Congregation of St. Maur, is inseparable from the history of European learning and civilization.

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The Jesuits, or Society of Jesus—the celebrated teaching as well as missionary or preaching order of the catholic church—was founded in Paris in August, 1534, in the church of Montmatre, when Ignatius of Loyola, in concert with five associates, took the oaths of poverty and celibacy, with the immediate purpose of a pilgrimage to Jerusalem; and after the failure of their original purpose in 1540, having assembled in Rome, the associates adopted the rule of their permanent organization, which was authorized and established by the Papal Bull, dated Sept. 27 in that year. On his election to the office of general or superior, the first work of the founder, Ignatius, was to devote himself to the personal instruction of children, thereby, it is thought, indicating his own view of the special mission of the order. One of the first institutions established by this society was in Rome (*collegium Romanum*), in 1550, the arrangements and methods of which were, with modifications from other schools of the order, embodied in the *Ratio studiorum* published in 1599, a work of a commission of which Aquaviva, the fifth general of the order (1581–1615) was the leading spirit. After this model, and following this manual, colleges and higher institutions of learning were founded within a half-century in all the great centres of population in Europe. The first school of this society in France was opened in Paris in 1567 (although a house for novices was instituted in 1542), and in 1762 at the dissolution of the order, there were 86 colleges, and upwards of 700 schools of a high grade, under their charge. The instruction given in these schools was far more practical and systematic than could be obtained in the universities, or in the schools of other orders, in which special attention had not been paid to the training of teachers.

The fathers of the Congregation of Oratory, known as Oratorians, originated with Philip de Neri, at Florence, in 1551, and were organized under a rule which was approved by the Pope, Paul V, February 12, 1612. Besides certain general objects, such as the public service of the church, the care of the sick, and the study of theological questions, they devoted themselves to the instruction of the young, particularly of the poor, and the reclamation of the vicious. As a means of withdrawing the young from dangerous amusements, sacred musical entertainments (thence called *oratorio*) were held in the house of the order, at first consisting solely of hymns, but afterwards partaking of the nature of sacred operas or dramas, to which were added religious and literary lectures. The order was introduced into France at Dieppe in 1611, even before its official recognition by the Pope, by Pierre (cardinal) de Berulle, and from the start was de-

voted to the education of youth. In the year 1711 their establishments in France numbered fifty-eight, and many excellent men of science and literature were educated by these fathers—such as Lelong, Lami, Malebranche, Massillon, Daunou, and others. In 1790, when the order was swept away in the revolutionary storm, it had reached its highest development, and besides its great central house in Paris, it had several seminaries for theologians, thirty-one schools preparatory for university, with normal courses for future teachers, and two military colleges.

Port Royal des Champs, a convent of Cistercian nuns, was originally founded prior to 1200, by a member of the family of Montmorenci, and was placed on a new footing by Mere Angelique in 1613, and a new day community organized in Paris in 1635. The schools of Port Royal under their new organization as educational institutes, flourished only for a brief period only, but the text-books prepared for their use, from their excellent method, scientific precision, and clear, vigorous style, were widely and permanently used. The methods and traditions of the school were revived in the publications and teaching of the accomplished Charles Rollin, who, in his treatise on "*The manner of teaching and studying the Belles-lettres*," published in Paris in 1725, exerted a powerful influence, not only on the schools and pedagogy of France, but of other parts of Europe. This treatise was an earnest and eloquent advocacy of the humanities,—the study of languages—French, Latin, and Greek, and of their respective literatures, as a basis for all liberal education. It was issued in an English and German version, and was recommended by Frederick II, who opened a correspondence with the author.

The early as well as the later annals of France are not barren of efforts and institutions for the education of women. Associated with those who founded and ministered in the earliest christian churches under the title of *Deaconesses*, and finding in the shelter of monasteries opportunities for intellectual culture as well as for devout meditation, woman was recognized as the companion of man in his highest aspirations as well as in his labors for the regeneration and advancement of society. The letter of St. Jerome to Leta on the education of her daughter, written about 390 A. D., contains views of female education altogether in advance of anything that Grecian or Roman civilization had realized, and announced the principles upon which the education of girls in the Catholic Church has been since conducted. We meet from time to time in the history of France, with the names of the daughters of kings and nobles, not only trained in the best learning of their day, but so instructed in the ways of government and the daily occupations of society, that when called upon to share with their consorts the government, and even in the feminine fiefs, to rule in their own right, they performed their duties with the highest success.

As early as the twelfth century there existed in Paris, and in other large towns, facilities of instruction by which young girls, of poor as well as of the highest families, who aspired to admission to the religious orders, could be properly trained; and in 1380 there were in Paris twenty parochial schools for girls, connected with as many churches.

PERIOD II.—From 1789 to 1808.

At the outbreak of the French revolution education in France was on a level with the other European states; that is to say, very little attention was paid to elementary education, and the so-called "Latin schools" almost exclusively prepared young men for the university. The ancient classics formed the chief subjects of study, which, however, began gradually to diminish in importance as in the latter half of the seventeenth century a new era dawned in French literature. The teachers at the schools of Port-Royal deserve especial praise for having paved the way towards introducing a more rational method of instruction. Men like Lancelot, Nicolle, Rollin, &c., were particularly active in this respect.

(1.) The insufficiency of the system of public instruction was fully recognized by the *Constituent Assembly* (1789–1791). In the month of September, 1791, this resolution was passed: "There shall be created and organized a public instruction, common to all citizens, gratuitous in respect of those branches which are indispensable for all men." In pursuance of this resolution, Talleyrand was commissioned to draw up a plan by which all institutions for public instruction would be divided into four classes, viz: *elementary* schools in the chief city of every canton; *secondary* schools (answering to the German gymnasia) in the chief city of every district; *department* schools (universities) in the chief city of every department; and finally, the Institute at Paris. A programme of instruction for these various schools was drawn up, quite in keeping with the spirit of the period.

(2.) This effort was without practical result, as the *Constituent Assembly* was soon after dissolved, and Talleyrand's report was handed over to the *Legislative Assembly* (1791–1792). Condorcet was commissioned by this body to draw up a new plan. This was presented in April, 1792. He proposed the following classification of all institutions of learning; 1. Primary schools. 2. Secondary schools, one in every city containing more than 4,000 inhabitants, and answering to the present burgher schools of Germany. 3. Institutes, answering to the German gymnasia, but with a more extensive programme of studies, including agriculture, mechanics, medicine, veterinary surgery, &c. 4. Lycea, where all the subjects usually taught at universities should be included in the course of studies. 5. The National Institute, for higher scientific and literary researches. The rapid march of political events prevented the carrying out of this plan.

(3.) In the *National Convention* (1792–1795) many educational projects were started, but none were matured. The main thing done was to close all royal colleges and institutions, and sell their estates for the benefit of the public treasury. Thus many tolerably good and some excellent institutions of learning were abolished, and nothing placed in their stead. Barrère proposed the foundation of a National Normal school, to which six citizens (at the age of 16 to 17) should be sent from every district, who were to be educated gratis and receive the morals and knowledge appropriate for revolutionary soldiers. Sons of good republicans should have the preference. This normal school was opened with great pomp, the Re-

public paid the expenses for 1,200 scholars, under men of the first rank in science and literature, like Lagrange, Laplace, Berthollet, Volney, Bernardin de St. Pierre, and Laharpe. It was in existence only three months, but the plan was revived in 1809, and has proved highly successful. The law of Oct. 25, 1795, established central schools (5 in Paris and 95 in the departments), at which the following subjects were to be taught: mathematics, physics, experimental chemistry, natural history, agriculture, commerce, scientific methodics, logic, analysis of sentiment and ideas, national economy, law, philosophy, medicine, grammar, literature, ancient and modern languages, and drawing. This decree, although it shared the fate of many others, was instrumental in founding an institution which, though from time to time very much modified, became the famous Polytechnic School; and another, originally proposed by Talleyrand, which becoming incorporated with the old Academy of Science, has come down to our time as the Institute of France. It also proclaimed liberty of instruction.

(4.) The *Directory* (1795–1799) likewise made many futile efforts to establish a better system of education, but nothing lasting was accomplished. The foreign wars absorbed all the time and resources of the government, and occupied the whole nation. A few only of the central schools developed slowly into permanent state institutions.

(5.) The *Consulate* (1799–1804), under the strong and efficient guidance of the First Consul Bonaparte, undertook to improve the wretched state of public instruction, which certainly had not been benefitted by the experimenting of the previous ten years. Of all the institutions of the old Paris University, the only one in existence, was the college *Louis-le-Grand*, now called the *Prytaneum*. Out of the rich funds of this institution the First Consul founded, in 1800, four colleges, each with 100 free places, and a like number of paying scholars, at Paris, Versailles, Fontainebleau, and St. Germain, and a *real-school* for 300 scholars at Compiègne.

The organization of these colleges was entirely military. Each college had two sections: the lower section gave instruction in elementary knowledge, rudiments of ancient and modern history and geography, natural history, &c. The higher section was subdivided into a civil and military division; the *former* having four classes, viz: two so-called “classes of humanities”; one class of rhetoric; one class of philosophy—and the *latter*, having three classes, imparting a thorough instruction in mathematics, statics, astronomy, fortification, physics, chemistry, tactics, artillery-practice. Gratuitous scholars, on having satisfactorily absolved their course, received an appointment in the government service. The *real-school* was intended for young men devoting themselves to an industrial career.

In 1802, when a concordate was concluded with Rome, religion was again introduced into the schools as a subject of instruction. In the same year a new law was promulgated thoroughly reorganizing the system of public instruction. Attendance at school was again made obligatory, the state took the superintendence of all schools into its own hands, and only granted the privilege of founding private schools under certain conditions.

I. OFFICIAL ADMINISTRATION.

(1.) Organization of the University of France.—(2.) Law of March 15, 1850.—(3.) Decree of March 9, 1852, and Law of June 14, 1854.—(4.) Decree of July 11, 1863.—(5.) Legal Constitution and Officers of Public Instruction.

THE system of public instruction now in operation in France originated in the law of May 10, 1806, by which a corporation as well as department of government was established under the name of the *Imperial University*, with exclusive charge of schools and instruction throughout the Empire; and in a Decree of the Emperor, dated March 17, 1808, by which this corporation was organized under a hierarchy of officers, without the authorization of whose chief no school or establishment of education could be formed. The various modifications which this organization and administration have received will be briefly traced.

(1.) When Napoleon I. founded the University of France, he placed over it a grand-master, whose duty it was to regulate and govern it. He was assisted by a council of six members, holding a *titulary* position, appointed for life, and twenty ordinary councilors, appointed annually, who were divided into sections, each section having authority in its department in minor matters, but all important questions were considered in an assembly of the whole.

General inspectors, classified to correspond with the five faculties of theology, law, medicine, letters, and science, were charged with the duty of visiting annually the academies, "to examine," in the words of the decree of March 17, 1808, "the condition of instruction and discipline in the faculties, the lyceums, and the colleges; to inform themselves in regard to the fidelity and ability of the professors, regents, and ushers (*maîtres d'études*); to examine the students; in fine, to make a complete survey of those institutions, in their whole administration."

As many academies (27) were originally constituted as there were courts of appeal. Each was presided over by a rector, assisted by inspectors and a council of ten members, selected by the grand-master, from the officers and functionaries of the academy. This council held jurisdiction over all the *personnel* of the schools, both teachers and pupils, and managed all cases of discipline, the decision or verdict being, however, reserved for the council of the University. In this way, the whole body of teachers, without being strictly irremovable from office, were protected by strong guarantees from exposure to arbitrary dismissal, and consequent pecuniary destitution and suffering.

The ordinance of February 17, 1815, overturned the original constitution of the University. The considerations on which this action was based are remarkable, and it seems to have been directed exclusively against the authority of the grand-master. In the preamble, the king says: "It appeared to us that the régime of the University, possessing exceptional and absolute authority, was incompatible with our paternal intentions and the liberal spirit of our government; that being necessarily occupied with

the general management, it was forced, in a certain sense, to ignore or neglect those details and that daily supervision which could be entrusted only to the local authorities, who are better informed in regard to the needs, and more interested in the prosperity of institutions placed directly under their eyes; that the right of selecting those places being lodged in the hands of a single individual, thereby increasing the risk of misjudgment and partiality, has lessened emulation, and also reduced the teachers to a dependence ill-befitting the honor of the state and the importance of their professional functions; that this dependence, and the frequent removals consequent upon it, have rendered the positions of the teachers uncertain and precarious, have been prejudicial to that public respect of which they have need in their self-denying labors, have prevented the growth of that confidence between themselves and the parents of their pupils which is the fruit of continued service and long acquaintance, and have deprived them also of the reward due them, in the respect and affection of those communities to which they have consecrated their talents and their life."

For these considerations the office of grand-master was abolished, and the administration of public instruction was entrusted to a Council of eleven members and a president. The number of the inspectors-general was reduced to twelve, two for the department of law, two for medicine, eight for the sciences and letters. The twenty-seven academies which corresponded to the royal courts covering the jurisdiction of the territory left to France, were replaced by seventeen universities, composed each of:

1. a Council, presided over by a rector;
2. Faculties;
3. Royal colleges;
4. Communal colleges.

Almost as soon as decreed, this organization was overturned by the return of the emperor, but immediately after the *cents-jours*, the ordinance of August 15, 1815, created another, which entirely changed the old academic districts, and greatly modified, in other respects, the constitution of 1808. In fact, all the prerogatives granted to the grand-master, and to the council of the university, such as the nominations to positions, the jurisdiction over discipline, and the general administration, were provisionally transferred to a Commission acting under the authority of the Minister of the Interior.

The Commission of public instruction was composed at first of five members, afterwards of seven, and among them have been found the most honored names of France: M. Royer Collard, M. Sylvester de Sacy, M. De Frayssinous, M. George Cuvier, and M. Poisson. Those devoted and noble men exercised as much prudence as energy in preserving from total ruin the organization of the University, which had many and active enemies, even among those in high authority. Their wisely directed efforts were, however, crowned with success. In 1820, Louis XVIII, "wishing to establish on a firm basis the administration of public education, and also to prepare a thorough organization; wishing at the same time, to express to the Commission his appreciation of their services," ordered that

it should be resolved into a Royal Council of Public Instruction, and should adopt the customs of the old council of the University. The members shared the functions of chancellor and treasurer, and the consideration of all matters pertaining to the royal colleges, the communal colleges, the faculties, the academy of Paris, the finances of the establishment, &c. In their deliberations the president had the casting vote, and he also conducted the correspondence with the government, assigned the duties of the councilors, signed all official despatches, appointments, and money orders.

In February, 1821, another important power was committed to the president, that of making the appointments, after consultation with the members of the council.

In 1822 he received the title of Grand-master of the University, with all the prerogatives provided in the decree of 1808. In 1824 the Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and of Public Instruction was created; and in 1828 a division of these functions was made, and a special Ministry of Public Instruction established, under the direction of M. de Vatimesnil.

At this time, when the country was applauding the progress made in public education, and when a unanimous voice called for a still more rapid and general advance, it would have been a most unwise policy to have reduced this department to a subordinate grade, to be confounded with the other various branches of the Department of the Interior. Even the title of grand-master, given to the head of the University, would not have been enough to secure to it that independence, influence, and prestige, which always comport with its noble mission. Whether separated from the ecclesiastical administration, or united with it, public instruction laid claim to that honorable and true representation in the councils of the nation, which it still holds, and will never lose.

The downfall of the elder branch of the Bourbons caused but slight changes in the organization of public instruction. The *personnel* of the council of the university, and that of general inspection, were changed and enlarged, but the institution itself was not touched. The monarchy of July respected the order of affairs established by the Restoration, and it even succeeded in causing public opinion to regard that as a necessary point of departure, or as an unassailable foundation for those new institutions which the friends of liberty of instruction were demanding.

The first minister who judged a reform necessary, or at least had the courage to initiate it, at the risk of bringing on himself a storm of opposition, was M. de Salvandy. In 1845 he submitted for the royal sanction an ordinance which modified the council of the university by adding to the titular members holding office for life, twenty ordinary councilors, appointed for a year only. This modification was strictly in conformity with the letter and spirit of the decree of 1808, and the advantage to be gained by it, as the emperor Napoleon himself thought, was the annual introduction of new elements into the council, thereby imparting fresh vigor to its deliberations. In fine, without impairing the liberty or the authority of the university, it offered a guaranty to the ministerial prerogative against

the encroachments of a fixed and irresponsible jurisdiction, tempted through the high position of the judges and their own personal characters and experience, to transcend, involuntarily, the limits prescribed by the laws. But, as might have been expected, this intention of the ordinance excited great opposition.

(2.) In 1848, a bill embodying changes in the council of public instruction, was about to be presented, when the revolution of February burst forth. It seemed probable at first that this event would not affect the University, but unexpected reforms were afterwards introduced, and more radical in character than those framed by M. de Salvandy.

In August 1848, under the administration of M. de Vaulabelle, the academic districts received their first modification, being reduced from twenty-seven to twenty. This was done under the plea of economy. The new districts had for their centers the cities of Aix, Angers, Besançon, Bordeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dijon, Douai, Grenoble, Lyon, Montpellier, Nancy, Paris, Poitiers, Rennes, Reims, Strasbourg, Toulouse, and Alger. The old academies of Amiens, Clermont, Limoges, Metz, Nîmes, Orléans, Pau, Rouen, and La Corse, were abolished.

Some months afterwards, among the first acts of the administration of M. de Falloux, two commissions, holding diverse opinions, were organized, from whose united labors was elaborated the famous law passed by the Assembly March 15, 1850, under the ministry of M. de Parieu. One commission was composed of M. Cousin, M. Thiers, M. Dubois: the other of M. Dupanloup, M. de Montalembert, and M. Laurentie.

This law, in its first conception, aimed to extend to secondary education the same liberty of instruction which had characterized primary education since the reorganization in 1833, but its authors were brought, by a logical necessity as well as by the pressure of circumstances, to remodel from the foundation the constitution of the university. In the place of the old council a new one was created, composed of archbishops, bishops, protestant clergymen, magistrates, councilors of state, and members of the Institute of France, all elected by the free suffrage of their peers. The enemies of the university had often reproached it with being a corporation pervaded with the spirit of a narrow exclusiveness, and to remove this prejudice, though not a well founded one, it was deemed advisable to enlist all the highest resources and influences of society in the guardianship and direction of public instruction. It was also important that the private schools should be represented, as a security for the continuance of the privileges already accorded to them. The official representatives of the public schools called to form a part of the new council, numbered only eight. They were appointed for life by the head of the state, and formed the so-called *permanent* section, the duties of the office being constant. To them was entrusted the preparatory consideration of all questions pertaining to the order, the expenses, and the administration of the public schools. The functions of the council, as a body, were various. In such matters as the establishment of faculties and lyceums, and deciding on

courses of study, and text-books, it was necessarily consulted. On other matters it was called upon to deliberate, at the good pleasure of the government. In all disputes and cases of discipline, its decisions had binding force, whether it were a contention over the opening of a private school, or the appeal of a teacher who had lost his position.

The academic administration, already so disturbed, had a large share in the reform of the university regime. The number of the academies was increased to eighty-six, the districts corresponding to the departments, and the number to that of the courts of appeal, as was originally the case. The division of France into départements is the basis of its administrative organization. Numerous interests attach to a département, and already their boundary lines divide also the population. The government thus places itself near its subjects, and without loss of authority, exercising a surveillance over private schools, the influence reacting again upon the public schools. This was the hope of those who favored the establishment of *départemental* academies. In placing over each a rector and an academic council, the law sought to create a counterpart of the superior council of public instruction, and it appointed ecclesiastics, magistrates, and general councilors, as members. The authority of the University, so long powerful, became overshadowed by this large body of valuable auxiliaries, who shared its functions, its responsibilities, and its influence.

Such was the spirit and character of the organization of public instruction embodied in the law of March 15, 1850. But the new order of things continued only eighteen months, after which, under the pressure of exterior causes, many fundamental changes were made.

(3.) One of the features of the law of March 15, 1850, and one which was the result of peculiar circumstances, was, that most of the offices were elective, the prelates, the councilors of state, the councilors of the court of appeal, the members of the consistories, and of the institute, forming the superior council. In each department, also, the general council elected those of its members who were to form a part of the academic council. Under the new regime, inaugurated December 2, 1851, the above mode of election was abolished, the government, in the decree of March 9, 1852, claiming for itself the right of appointing all members of the different councils of public instruction.

The same decree contained another innovation, suppressing the *permanent* section, that imperfect copy of the original council of the university, and as a substitute eight inspectors-general were appointed, charged with the special supervision of higher education, but were divided into three sections, corresponding to the three grades of instruction, the primary, secondary, and superior. Finally, by the decree of March 9, 1852, the government was invested with still more extended powers affecting public instruction. It assumed the right, never before claimed, of passing judgment on the functionaries of that department, directly and without appeal, not only to the extent of a reprimand before the academic council, or a censure before the higher council, or a change of situation, or suspen-

sion with partial or total withdrawal of pay, but also the revocation of any acquired claims to a pension. The state of the country rendered necessary this kind of dictatorship, never before experienced by the university, and to which it submitted with painful unwillingness, but never failing to deserve public esteem by reason of the devotion, wisdom, and loyalty of its members.

In the midst of these changes, the departmental academies remained intact, but there were many judicious minds who believed such an organization better adapted to more local and limited interests, like that of primary education, than to secondary and higher education, the sphere of which was not confined by either communal or department lines. It was seen that the academic districts, having been so multiplied, were now not large enough for the several rectors to put in successful operation those systems of comparison and competition which so stimulate both masters and pupils, and so conduce to the development of the best methods of instruction. It was also apparent that the office of rector had lost something of its former dignity, a consequence quite inevitable, by reason of the more restricted influence and small reward attached to it. These criticisms, quite general among the members and friends of the university, were sustained by the prefects or governors of the departments, who claimed, as a requisite to public order, the control of all the schools, at least of the primary schools, in their several departments. The question was one of grave importance, and the government, after mature deliberation, decided on instituting a new organization. The departmental academies were abolished, and sixteen academies established in their place, and as their centers certain of the older towns were selected, where learning had long flourished, viz: Aix, Basançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Clermont, Dijon, Douai, Grenoble, Lyon, Montpellier, Nancy, Paris, Poitiers, Rennes, Strasbourg, and Toulouse. The new academies included the different grades of institutions, *faculties*, *lyceums*, *colleges*, and *primary schools*. It was the intention of the government that these should become distinguished scientific and literary centres, widely diffusing knowledge, under the guidance and influence of the rector. The new academy council, which was to aid the rector, was composed of inspectors, of the deans, of the faculties, of seven members chosen by the ministry from the body of bishops, also of clergymen, magistrates, and state deputies. Its office was to secure the maintenance of those methods of instruction prescribed by the central authorities, and advising in all questions of management, economy, and discipline, arising in the faculties, lyceums, and colleges. In each department the control of primary schools was committed to the hands of the prefects, each of whom was assisted by a council having legal jurisdiction over both primary and secondary schools (lyceums and colleges). This council, which took the name of *Conseil Départemental*, was virtually the council as organized under the law of 1850, though under another name.

The above plan of organization became a law June 14, 1854, and has

not since been modified, except in a trifling particular, the addition of one academy, that of Chambréy, the number now being seventeen. In virtue of this law, the direction of public instruction is divided between the rectors and the prefects, and between the academic councils and the departmental councils. Of their former prerogatives the rectors retain only those strictly pedagogical, connected with the department of the classes and their attainments, the professional duties and correlative rights of the teachers, those of the primary schools excepted. The prefects recovered control of primary instruction, which had been given them in 1808, and which they had lost in 1833; they profess it to be their purpose to see that the change should conduce to the good order of society, devoting themselves not so much to the methods of instruction as to the outward influences of the school, less to the skill and attainments of the teachers than to their public and private conduct, their obedience of the laws, and fidelity to the Emperor. Whilst the rector, as official guardian of education, gives his attention to its advancement, and to elevating the intellectual standard of the country, the prefect aims to protect it from corrupting influences, and render it a guaranty of social security. The two authorities, vested with different but not rival functions, contribute, each in its sphere, to the administration of national education, under the auspices of the Minister to whom this important service has been entrusted. This is the theory of the existing organization, and it is claimed by its friends that the results thus far have realized the aim of the law. There is, however, much dissatisfaction with the authority given to the prefects, whose legitimate functions are political, in matters strictly pedagogical.

4. The law of June 14, 1854, bore the imprint of those alarms which the condition of the country during the years which followed the revolution of 1848, had created among all good citizens. On the establishment of a settled peace and continued prosperity, it was deemed wise to restore to the body of instructors some of the privileges which had been lost in less fortunate times. To effect this, a proposition was submitted to the Emperor by M. Duruy, on his accession to the chair of Minister of Public Instruction. There followed, July 11, 1863, a decree directing that a committee composed of five, designated by the Imperial Council of Public Instruction, from among its own members, should be called to give its advice in every case of the removal of a professor of the higher or secondary schools, the accused being permitted to present his defense orally or in writing.

The latest act which affects the organization of public instruction, is the establishment of a Superior Council (*Conseil Supérieur*) for the advancement of special secondary education. The necessity for such a council grew out of the law which authorized, in the colleges, courses of study appropriate to the needs of agriculture, the industrial arts, and commerce. Its essential duties consist in taking cognizance of all documents pertaining to these new courses of education, in consulting upon the proper selection and arrangement of studies, and coöperating with the Minister in perfecting the system.

The following is the actual organization of public instruction in France in 1868, and the several authoritative bodies to whom the management and supervision of the schools are entrusted.

At the head of the organization is the Minister of Public Instruction, whose office in Paris has, besides his own private clerks, six divisions, and his secretary-general. Each division has its chief clerk, and two or more bureaus, each with its clerk and its special duties. The first, second, and third division deals with all matters relating respectively to superior, secondary, and primary instruction; the fourth, with the Institute and public libraries, &c.; the fifth with the Museum of Natural History, the Observatories, &c.; the sixth, with expenditures of all kinds.

The minister is supported by two councils, the Imperial Council of Public Instruction, and Council Superior for secondary special education.

The Council Imperial can be called on to give its advice on any question connected with education. It is necessarily consulted upon the arrangements of studies, the establishment of faculties, lyceums, and colleges, and is the tribunal of last resort in all questions touching the rights of teachers. Its 32 members represent the great moral, intellectual, and administrative forces of the state; the church in its recognized organizations, by 8; 3 senators; 3 councilors of state; 3 judges of the highest court; 5 members of the institute; 8 inspectors-general (1 for science, one for letters); 2 head-masters of private schools,—all elected by their peers.

To twenty Inspectors-general; eight of superior instruction, eight of secondary, and four of primary, all appointed by the Emperor, is assigned the duty of visiting all the schools of the country.

The seventeen academies, whose several districts (*circonscription*) include all the territory of France, are administered by as many rectors, assisted by inspectors of the academy, and inspectors of primary schools. Each academy has also a Commission of Health, charged with the sanitary interests of the establishments of public instruction in the academic district.

Each rector is aided by an Academic Council, whose special office it is to see that good methods and good discipline are maintained in the communal colleges, the lyceums, and all institutions of higher education in the province. This council is composed of 13 members, viz: the rector, the inspectors and deans of faculties in the academic district; 3 clergymen of the recognized churches; two deputies, and two citizens.

Primary instruction, in all that belongs to its administration, is under the authority of the prefects. In each department a Council, over which the prefect presides, gives advice on all questions relating to primary schools, and holds the first jurisdiction in all cases of discipline and dispute, which concern private establishments and the liberty of teaching. This council is composed of 13 members, viz: the prefect, an academy and primary school inspector, and other members designated by the minister.

To appreciate the importance attached to the Department of Public Instruction in France we give the names of some of the principal functionaries, from the official register of 1869.

II. PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

- (1.) Suggestions for a National System. (2.) Decrees of the National Convention; Report and Law of Daunau, October 25, 1795; Law of May 1, 1802. (3.) Primary schools in the Imperial University organization. (4.) Progress from 1815 to 1830; the budget; re-establishment of the teaching orders, and spread of normal schools. (5.) Special ministry of instruction; Report of Cuvier, Law of June 28, 1833, and administration of M. Guizot. (6.) Modifications in 1848 and 1850. (7.) Statistical results. (8.) Adult instruction. (9.) Professional instruction of teachers. (10.) Infant nurture and schools.

Public elementary instruction, as at present organized, with its budget, schools, teachers, and officials, can hardly be said to have existed in France prior to the law of June 28, 1833; although the germs of the system will be found in the aspirations of her statesmen, and the earlier laws, decrees, and regulations of the government on this subject.

(1.) The grand ideas, recognized by Turgot, in his plan of a uniform system of national education superintended by a royal council, in 1775; by the Third Estate of the States General of 1787, in its demands "that public education should be adapted to the wants of all orders in the state, and designed to form good and useful men in all classes of society, and that the municipal and lay authorities should share with the clergy the appointment and supervision of public teachers;" by the Constituent Assembly, in its fundamental constitution, of September 3, 1792, "to create and organize a public instruction, common to all citizens, and gratuitous in respect of those branches of tuition which are indispensable for all men;" by Talleyrand, Condorcet, and Daunau, in their several reports, in which they advocate plans, diverse, and even antagonistic, in some of their details, and extravagant in their demands,—have by degrees been tested and sifted by more practical men, and are slowly passing into the organization and practice of elementary instruction, not only in France, but in other countries.

(2.) The National Convention, by decrees, dated December 12, 1792, May 30, 1793, and October 21, 1793, ordered and provided for the establishment of primary schools. Every neighborhood, with 400 inhabitants, "must have a public school, in which children of all classes could receive that first education, physical, moral, and intellectual, the best adapted to develope in them republican manners, patriotism, and the love of labor, and to render them worthy of liberty and equality." "Pupils must be taught to speak, read, and write correctly the French language; the geography of France; the rights and duties of men and citizens; the first notions of natural and familiar objects; the use of numbers, the compass, the level, the system of weights and measures, the mechanical powers, and measurement of time. They were to be taken often into the fields and the workshops where they might see agricultural and mechanical operations going on, and take part in the same so far as their age would allow."

By a subsequent decree, (October 29, 1793,) a local commission of intelligent, public-spirited, and moral persons was to be appointed, to locate the school, and hold a public examination of all candidates for the position

of teachers, as to their acquirements, aptitude for instruction, and moral character. From a list of the successful candidates, the parents and guardians of the district in which a school was to be opened, and any vacancy existed, might in public meeting choose a teacher. For the teacher thus examined, approved, and selected, the law fixed a minimum salary of 1,200 francs, to be paid out of the public treasury. This salary could be increased by the liberality of the district and of the parents. By a decree of December 19th of the same year (1793), "liberty of instruction is proclaimed,—citizens and citizenesses, who can produce a certificate of civism and good morals, can inform the municipal authorities of their intention to teach, and of the subjects which they propose to teach, and open a school where they please. This liberty was abridged by a law passed November 17, 1794, so far as to subject the teacher and his school to the approbation of a "jury of instruction to be chosen by the district administration from among the fathers of families." This law, which was repealed August-31, 1797, provides that the residence of the clergyman, if not already sold for the benefit of the republic under the decree of March 8, 1793, should be assigned to the school-master for a dwelling and a school. The same law added to the penalty (in the law of 1793,) of a fine on parents who failed to send their children to school, a requirement "that those young citizens who have not attended school shall be examined, in the presence of the people, at the Feast of the Young, and if they shall be found not to have the requirements necessary for French citizens, shall be excluded from all public functions until they have attained them." To the course of instruction laid down in the decree of 1793, the law of 1794 added "gymnastics, military exercises, and swimming."

There is much that is extravagant in these requirements of a public school to be set up in every neighborhood of 400 inhabitants, poor as the entire rural population of France had been made by exactions of the privileged few, and ignorant as the great majority of parents had been left by all the previous agencies and facilities of education. And yet in these enactments we find expressed the highest aspirations of the most advanced educators of this age, and much that is now realized in the best public schools of Germany and the United States. Just because the law required more than could be performed, or than the existing instrumentalities of administration could educate the public mind to appreciate and sustain, it remained a dead letter, or gave way to enactments less exacting and less salutary.

The only permanent contribution of this period of French legislation to the system of elementary schools was a chapter of eleven articles in the *Decree concerning the Organization of Public Instruction*, October 25th, 1795, (3 Brumaire, year IV.) founded on a remarkable report of Daunau, in which the whole subject of public instruction is ably discussed. The following are the provisions respecting primary schools :

ART. 1. There shall be established in every canton of the republic, one or more primary schools, whose territorial limits shall be determined by the departmental authorities.

2. There shall be established in every department several juries or committees of instruction, the members not to exceed six, and each to be composed of three members appointed by the departmental authorities.

3. The teachers of the primary schools shall be examined by one of the juries of instruction, and upon the presentation of the municipal authorities, shall be appointed by the departmental administration.

4. They shall be dismissed only on the concurrence of the same authorities, at the proposal of a jury of instruction, and after having had a hearing.

5. In every primary school shall be taught reading, writing, cyphering, and the elements of republican morals.

6. Every primary teacher shall be furnished by the republic with a residence, (with school-room for his pupils,) and garden. Instead of a residence and garden, the teacher may be paid an equivalent in money.

7. They, as well as the professors of the central and special schools, may perform other duties, not incompatible with teaching, and receive pay.

8. They shall receive from each pupil an annual fee, to be fixed by the departmental administration.

9. The school fee may be remitted to one-fourth of the pupils of each school, on account of poverty.

10. The regulations of the primary schools shall be decided by the departmental administration, subject to the approbation of the Executive Directory.

11. The municipal authorities shall exercise direct supervision over the primary schools, and shall see to the execution of the laws and decrees of the higher administrations relating to the same.

This decree was the sole legacy of the conventions of the people which legislated for France in the matter of primary instruction.

The Directory attempted nothing in respect to primary or public schools, beyond a feeble administration of the law of 1795, and a further development of the central schools, and particularly of the school of public works,—the great Polytechnic School of Paris.

In 1801, the Consular Government addressed inquiries to the council-general of each department, then recently instituted, as to the condition and wants of the locality. The replies disclosed a general and appalling destitution of schools, great dissatisfaction with the new system, a call here and there for the re-establishment of the old teaching orders, but a profound indifference on the part of parents as to the education of their children.

In 1802, (May 1,) a law was issued, the first chapter of which related to primary schools, and was substantially a repetition of the provisions of the law of 1795. The commune was required to furnish a house for the teacher, with a room for the school. The teacher depended for his support on the fees paid by the scholars, one-fifth of whom were exempted on the ground of poverty. The teacher was responsible to the municipal authority, and the supervision of the school belonged to the recently created departmental executive, the prefect and sub-prefect.

(3.) In 1806, (May 10,) the University of France was established, and in the decree organizing the same, March 17, 1808, four articles relate to primary schools. In one (Art. 5), these schools are designated "for the poor, in which reading, writing, and the first notions of arithmetic" are to be taught, to which must be added the provision applicable to all the schools, "the precepts of religion, loyalty, and obedience." Article 108 provides that normal classes shall be formed in the lyceums and grammar schools, in which masters shall be trained for the primary schools, and particularly

"in the best methods of teaching children to read, write, and cipher," to which "the knowledge indispensable to all men" had dwindled down. Another article specifies the Brethren of the Christian schools, who were to be authorized to teach, and to be encouraged by the Grand Master of the University. Neither this decree, or any other of this period, provided adequate means to establish schools, or protected the schools, by vigilant and intelligent inspection, from the incubus of ignorant teachers. With a ruthless conscription, and the passion of military promotion absorbing all the young talent of the State, the primary schools continued to languish, and were only slowly developing by a few public-spirited citizens, and under the auspices of the teaching "Brethren" and Sisters, who gradually re-established themselves in different parts of France. In 1810 the first normal school for primary teachers was founded at Strasbourg, by Count Lesay de Marnésia,—an institution suggested by the success of similar institutions in Germany and Switzerland.

Towards the close of his career, Napoleon became conscious that his "educational machine,"—the Imperial University,—with its existing institutions and resources, did not establish or promote elementary schools, and in a decree (April 30, 1815), establishing a model school as one step in a new direction, avowed his purpose,—“considering the importance of primary instruction in the amelioration of society, and the failure of the methods now practiced to reach the full measure of possible success, and to bring this department up to the requirements of the age,” to inaugurate new schools and other methods for the better education of the people of France. But his opportunity to establish a public system of elementary instruction equal to the necessities of a great empire had passed unimproved.

(4.) Under the lead of M. Cuvier, whose eminence in science and letters, arrested attention to any plan or measure he might recommend, and who had become acquainted, by personal observation, with the public schools of Holland and Germany, important steps were taken by the restored Monarchy for the advancement of elementary instruction. By a royal ordinance, dated February 29, 1816, the budget for the first time was charged with an annual grant of 10,000 francs in aid of model schools, and deserving primary teachers. The same ordinance provided for the formation of a special cantonal committee for the inspection of primary schools, and for the issuing of graduated certificates of qualification, founded on special examinations of teachers, after the example of Holland. Out of the small annual appropriation, information respecting the methods of Pestalozzi, Lancaster, Bell, and the schools of other countries, were disseminated among school officers and teachers. From 1821 to 1826, various religious societies devoted to elementary teaching, were authorized, and encouraged to establish schools in the different departments,—each mother-house becoming a normal school of methods; in addition to which twelve new teachers' Seminaries were put into successful operation, and the administration of the whole system of public instruction was committed to a responsible cabinet minister.

(5.) The change of dynasty and administration in July, 1830, was auspicious for public elementary instruction. After forty years of such agitation of the subject as no other government ever attempted,—after such utter destruction of old systems and institutions in a few swift years as no other country ever experienced in centuries,—after repeated attempts to found a new system commensurate with the wants of a great nation, to end only in disastrous failures,—after feeble beginnings in the way of local requisition, State appropriations, and independent inspection—the time and men had come for a comprehensive measure.

There is nothing in the history of modern civilization more truly sublime than the establishment of the present Law of Primary Instruction in France. As has been justly remarked by an English writer, "Few nations ever suffered more bitter humiliation than the Prussians and French mutually inflicted during the earlier years of the present century; and it was supposed that feelings of exasperation and national antipathy thus engendered by the force of circumstances, were ready, on the match being applied, to burst forth in terrible explosion. At the very time, however, when the elements of mischief were believed to be most active in the breasts of a people jealous of their honor, and peculiarly sensitive to insult, the French ministry, with the consent of the King and Chambers, send one of their ablest and wisest citizens, not to hurl defiance or demand restitution, but to take lessons in the art of training youth to knowledge and virtue, and that too in the capital of the very nation whose troops, sixteen years before, had, on a less peaceful mission, bivouacked in the streets of Paris, and planted their victorious cannon at the passages of her bridges. There are not many facts in the past history of mankind more cheering than this; not many traits of national character more magnanimous, or indicating more strikingly the progress of reason, and the coming of that time when the intercourse between nations will consist not in wars and angry protocols, but in a mutual interchange of good offices."

M. Victor Cousin, one of the most profound and popular writers of the age, in one department of literature, who was sent on this peaceful mission in the summer of 1831, submitted in the course of the year to his government, a "*Report on the condition of Public Instruction in Germany, and particularly in Prussia.*" This able document was published, and in defiance of national self-love, and the strongest national antipathies, it carried conviction throughout France. It demonstrated to the government and the people the immense superiority of all the German States, even the most insignificant duchy, over any and every department of France, in all that concerned institutions of primary and secondary education. The following extracts will indicate the conclusions to which Cousin arrives in reference to the educational wants of his own country. After pronouncing the school law of Prussia "the most comprehensive and perfect legislative measure regarding primary instruction" with which he was acquainted, he thus addresses himself to the minister:

"Without question, in the present state of things, a law concerning primary

Instruction is indispensable in France; the question is, how to produce a good one, in a country where there is a total absence of all precedent and all experience in so grave a matter. The education of the people has hitherto been so neglected,—so few trials have been made, or those trials have succeeded so ill, that we are entirely without those universally received notions, those predilections rooted in the habits and the mind of a nation, which are the conditions and the bases of all good legislation. I wish, then, for a law; and at the same time I dread it; for I tremble lest we should plunge into visionary and impracticable projects again, without attending to what actually exists.

The idea of compelling parents to send their children to school is perhaps not sufficiently diffused through the nation to justify the experiment of making it law; but everybody agrees in regarding the establishment of a school in every *commune* as necessary. It is also willingly conceded that the maintenance of this school must rest with the *commune*; always provided that, in case of inability through poverty, the *commune* shall apply to the department, and the department to the state. This point may be assumed as universally admitted, and may therefore become law.

You are likewise aware that many of the councils of departments have felt the necessity of securing a supply of schoolmasters, and a more complete education for them, and have, with this view, established primary Normal Schools in their departments. Indeed, they have often shown rather prodigality than parsimony on this head. This, too, is a most valuable and encouraging indication; and a law ordaining the establishment of a primary Normal School in each department, as well as a primary school in each *commune*, would do little more than confirm and generalize what is now actually doing in almost all parts of the country. Of course this primary Normal School must be more or less considerable according to the resources of each department.

Here we have already two most important points on which the country is almost unanimously agreed. You have also, without doubt, been struck by the petitions of a number of towns, great and small, for the establishment of schools of a class rather higher than the common primary schools; such as, though still inferior in classical and scientific studies to our royal and communal *colleges* might be more particularly adapted to give that kind of generally useful knowledge indispensable to the large portion of the population which is not intended for the learned professions, but which yet needs more extended and varied acquirements than the class of day-laborers and artisans. Such petitions are almost universal. Several municipal councils have voted considerable funds for the purpose, and have applied to us for the necessary authority, for advice and assistance. It is impossible not to regard this as the symptom of a real want,—the indication of a serious deficiency in our system of public instruction.

You are sufficiently acquainted with my zeal for classical and scientific studies; not only do I think that we must keep up to the plan of study prescribed in our *colleges*, and particularly the philological part of that plan, but I think we ought to raise and extend it, and thus, while we maintain our incontestable superiority in the physical and mathematical sciences, endeavor to rival Germany in the solidity of our classical learning.

Let our royal *colleges* then, and even a great proportion of our communal *colleges* continue to lead the youth of France into this sanctuary; they will merit the thanks of their country. But can the whole population enter learned schools? or, indeed, is it to be wished that it should? Primary instruction with us, however, is but meager; between that and the *colleges* there is nothing; so that a tradesman, even in the lower ranks of the middle classes, who has the honorable wish of giving his sons a good education, has no resource but to send them to the *college*. Two great evils are the consequence. In general, these boys, who know that they are not destined to any very distinguished career, go through their studies in a negligent manner; they never get beyond mediocrity; and when, at about eighteen, they go back to the habits and the business of their fathers, as there is nothing in their ordinary life to recall or to keep up their studies, a few years obliterate every trace of the little classical learning they acquired. On the other hand, these young men often contract tastes and acquaintances at *college* which render it difficult, nay, almost impossible, for them to return to the humble way of life to which they were born: hence a race of men restless, discontented with their position, with others, and with themselves; enemies of a state of society in which they feel themselves out of their

place; and with some acquirements, some real or imagined talent, and unbri-
 dled ambition, ready to rush into any career of servility or of revolt. The ques-
 tion then is, whether we are prepared to make ourselves responsible to the state
 and society for training up such a race of malcontents? Unquestionably, as I
 shall take occasion to say elsewhere, a certain number of exhibitions (*bourses*)
 ought to be given to poor boys who evince remarkable aptness: this is a sacred
 duty we owe to talent; a duty which must be fulfilled, even at the risk of being
 sometimes mistaken. These boys, chosen for the promise they give, go through
 their studies well and thoroughly, and on leaving school experience the same
 assistance they received on entering. Thus they are enabled, at a later period
 of life, to display their talents in the learned and liberal professions which are
 open to them, to the advantage of the state to which they owe their education.
 As, however, it is impossible for any government to find employment for every
 body, it ought not to furnish facilities for every body to quit the track in which
 his fathers have trod. Our *collèges* ought, without doubt, to remain open to all
 who can pay the expense of them; but we ought by no means to force the lower
 classes into them; yet this is the inevitable effect of having no intermediate
 establishments between the primary schools and the *collèges*. Germany and
 Prussia more especially, are rich in establishments of this kind. You per-
 ceive that I allude to the schools called tradesmen's or burghers' schools, or
 schools for the middle classes, (*Bürgerschulen*,) *écoles bourgeoises*, a name which
 it is perhaps impossible to transplant into France, but which is accurate and
 expressive, as contradistinguishing them from the learned schools, (*Gelchrtes-
 chulen*,) called in Germany *gymnasia*, and in France *collèges*, (in England,
 "grammar-schools,") a name, too, honorable to the class for whose especial use
 and benefit they are provided; honorable to those of a lower class, who by fre-
 quenting them can rise to a level with that above them. The burgher schools
 form the higher step of primary instruction, of which the elementary schools are
 the lower step. Thus there are but two steps or gradations: 1^o. Elementary
 schools,—the common basis of all popular instruction in town and country; 2^o.
 Burgher schools, which, in towns of some size and containing a middle class,
 furnish an education sufficiently extensive and liberal to all who do not intend
 to enter the learned professions. The Prussian law, which fixes a minimum
 of instruction for the elementary schools, likewise fixes a minimum of instruc-
 tion for the burgher schools; and there are two kinds of examination, extremely
 distinct, for obtaining the brevet of primary teacher for these two gradations.
 The elementary instruction must be uniform and invariable, for the
 primary schools represent the body of the nation, and are destined to nourish
 and to strengthen the national unity; and, generally speaking, it is not expedi-
 ent that the limit fixed by the law for elementary instruction should be exceeded:
 but this is not the case with the burgher schools, for these are designed for a
 class among whom a great many shades and diversities exist,—the middle class.
 It is therefore natural and reasonable that it should be susceptible of extension
 and elevation, in proportion to the importance of the town, and the character of
 the population for whom it is destined. In Prussia this class of schools has,
 accordingly, very different gradations, from the minimum fixed by the law, to
 that point where it becomes closely allied with the gymnasium, properly so
 called. At this point it sometimes takes the name of Progymnasium or pre-
 paratory gymnasium, in which classical and scientific instruction stops short
 within certain limits, but in which the middle or trading class may obtain a
 truly liberal education. In general, the German burgher schools, which are a
 little inferior to our communal *collèges* in classical and scientific studies, are in-
 comparably superior to them in religious instruction, geography, history, modern
 languages, music, drawing, and national literature.

In my opinion, it is of the highest importance to create in France, under one
 name or another, burgher schools, or schools for the middle classes, which give
 a very varied education; and to convert a certain number of our communal
collèges into schools of that description. I regard this as an affair of state.

There is a cry raised from one end of France to the other, demanding on be-
 half of three-fourths of the population, establishments which may fill the middle
 ground between the simple elementary schools and the *collèges*. The demands
 are urgent and almost unanimous.

The most difficult point in law on primary instruction is the determination
 what are the authorities to be employed. Here also let us consult facts. The

French administration is the glory and the masterwork of the imperial government. The organization of France in *maires* and prefectures, with municipal and departmental councils, is the foundation of government and of social order. This foundation has stood firm amidst so much ruin, that prudence and policy seem to point to it as the best and safest prop. Moreover, this organization has just been reformed and vivified by rendering the municipal and departmental councils elective and popular. Thus the French administration unites all that we want, activity and popularity. The administration, then, is what you must call to your aid. Recollect, also, that it is these local councils that pay, and that you can not fairly expect much from them unless they have a large share in the disbursement of the money they have voted. These councils are chosen out of the body of the people, and return to it again; they are incessantly in contact with the people; they are the people legally represented, as the *maires* and the prefects are these councils embodied, if I may so say, in one person, for the sake of activity and despatch. I regard, then, as another incontestable point, the necessary intervention of the municipal and departmental councils in the management of public instruction. As there ought to be a school in every *commune*, so there ought to be for every communal school a special committee of superintendence, which ought to be formed out of the municipal council, and presided over by the *maire*.¹ I shall perhaps be told, that men who are fit to conduct the business of the *commune* are not fit to superintend the communal school. I deny it: nothing is wanted for this superintendence but zeal, and fathers of families can not want zeal where their dearest interests are concerned. In Prussia no difficulty is found in this matter, and every parish-school has its *Schulvorstand*, in great part elective. Over the heads of these local committees there ought to be a central committee in the chief town of each department, chosen out of the council of the department, and presided over by the prefect. The committee of each *commune* would correspond with the committee of the department; that is to say, in short, the *maire*, with the prefect. This correspondence would stimulate the zeal of both committees. By it, the departmental committee would know what is the annual supply of schoolmasters required for the whole department, and consequently, the number of masters the Normal School of the department ought to furnish, and consequently, the number of pupils it ought to admit. It would have incessantly to urge on the zeal of the local committees in establishing and improving schools, for the sake of providing as well as possible for the pupils it sends out of its Normal School. Nothing can be more simple than this organization. It is, applied to primary instruction, what takes place in the ordinary administration: I mean, the combined action of the municipal councils and the departmental councils,—of the *maires* and the prefects.

After the administrative authorities, it is unquestionably the clergy who ought to occupy the most important place in the business of popular education. The rational middle course is to put the *cure* or the pastor, i. e. the Catholic and the Protestant clergyman—and if need be both, on every communal committee; and the highest dignitary of the church in each department, on the departmental committee. We must neither deliver over our committees into the hands of the clergy, nor exclude them; we must admit them, because they have a right to be there, and to represent the religion of the country. The men of good sense, good manners, and of consideration in their neighborhood, of whom these committees ought to be, and will be, composed, will gradually gain ascendancy over their ecclesiastical colleagues, by treating them with the respect due to their sacred functions. We must have the clergy; we must neglect nothing to bring them into the path toward which every thing urges them to turn; both their obvious interest, and their sacred calling, and the ancient services which their order rendered to the cause of civilization in Europe. But if we wish to have the clergy allied with us in the work of popular instruction, that instruction must not be stripped of morality and religion; for then indeed it would become the duty of the clergy to oppose it, and they would have the sympathy of all virtuous men, of all good fathers of families, and even of the mass of the people, on their side. Thank God, you are too enlightened a statesman to think that true popular instruction can exist without moral education, popular morality without religion, or popular religion without a church.

The proceedings of the communal and departmental committees, the *maire*

sub-prefects and prefects, ought, like all the other parts of the administration, to refer to one common center, from which a vigorous impulse and a supreme guidance may emanate, and upon whom all the responsibility before the chambers may rest. This center, in France, as in Prussia, is, the ministry and council of public instruction. This is not only according to law, but to nature and reason. It is perfectly consistent to leave primary instruction to the minister who has all the rest of public instruction, as well as ecclesiastical affairs, in his hands; that is to say, the two things with which the education of the people is the most intimately connected. Has any evil resulted from the present order of things? Far from it: every body is agreed that the minister and his council have done a great deal for primary instruction since the revolution of July. As you would have been able to effect nothing without the municipal and departmental councils, the *maires* and prefects, so those authorities acknowledge that they could have done little or nothing without your co-operation and direction. It is you who excited their zeal, who supported and encouraged them; you who, as the enlightened dispenser of the funds placed in your hands by the two chambers, have given vigor to public instruction by giving proportionate aid to necessitous places.

I strongly recommend the creation of a special inspector of primary instruction for each department. Our academical inspectors should be reserved for schools of the second class, which will suffice, and more than suffice, to employ all their powers, and all their diligence. Your natural agents and correspondents for primary instruction are the prefects, who would preside over the departmental committees, and to whom the correspondence of *maires* and communal committees, as well as the report of the departmental inspector, would be addressed.

The prefects would correspond officially with you, as they have hitherto done extra-officially; and there would be a councilor in the central council of public instruction, specially charged with the reports to be made on that portion of the business, as in fact there is now. This machinery is very simple, and would produce quick results; being less complex, it would work more freely. The only thing in which I would employ agents taken from the body of teachers would be, the commission of examination appointed for granting schoolmasters' brevets. No one disputes that professors have peculiar qualifications, and all the necessary impartiality, for that office. I should wish, then, that the examination-commission should be appointed by you, and composed of masters or professors of the royal or the communal *collèges* of the department; adding, for the religious part, a clergyman proposed by the bishop.

As to private teachers, and what people are pleased to call liberty of primary tuition, we must neither oppose it, nor reckon upon it. There are branches of the public service which must be secured against all casualties by the state, and in the first rank of these is primary instruction. It is the bounden duty of government to guarantee it against all caprices of public opinion, and against the variable and uncertain calculations of those who would engage in it as a means of subsistence. On this principle are founded our primary Normal Schools in each department, bound to furnish annually the average number of schoolmasters required by the department. We must rely exclusively on these Normal Schools for the regular supply of communal teachers.

But if, in the face of our primary communal schools, there are persons who, without having passed through the Normal Schools, choose to establish schools at their own risk and peril, it is obvious that they ought not only to be tolerated, but encouraged; just as we rejoice that private institutions and boarding-schools should spring up beside our royal and communal *collèges*. This competition can not be otherwise than useful, in every point of view. If the private schools prosper, so much the better; they are at full liberty to try all sorts of new methods, and to make experiments in teaching, which, on such a scale, can not be very perilous. At all events, there are our Normal Schools. Thus all interests are reconciled; the duties of the state, and the rights of individuals; the claims of experience, and those of innovation. Whoever wishes to set up a private school must be subject to only two conditions, from which no school, public or private, can on any pretext be exempt,—the brevet of capacity, given by the commission of examination, and the supervision of the committee of the *commune* and of the inspector of the department.

All these measures, on which I will not enlarge, are more or less founded on

existing facts; they have the sanction of experience; it would be simply advantageous to add that of law. On all the points concerning which the law is silent, experiments might be made. Among these experiments some would probably be successful: when sufficiently long practice had confirmed them, they might be inserted in a new law; or *ordonnances* and instructions, maturely weighed by the royal council, would convert them into general and official measures. Nothing must pass into a law which has not the warranty of success. Laws are not to be perilous experiments on society; they ought simply to sum up and to generalize the lessons of experience."

On the experience of Prussia as a basis, a great and comprehensive measure of elementary education for France was framed by M. Guizot. The bill was reported in 1832. In introducing the measure to the consideration of the Chamber of Deputies, M. Guizot made a speech as remarkable for its eloquence as for its large and liberal views of popular education, as will be indicated by the following passages:

"In framing this bill, it is experience, and experience alone, that we have taken for our guide. The principles and practices recommended have been supplied to us by facts. There is not one part of the mechanism which has not been worked successfully. We conceive that, on the subject of the education of the people, our business is rather to methodize and improve what exists, than to destroy for the purpose of inventing and renewing upon the faith of dangerous theories. It is by laboring incessantly on these maxims, that the Administration has been enabled to communicate a firm and steady movement to this important branch of the public service; so much so, that we take leave to say, that more has been done for primary education during the last two years, (1831, 1832,) and by the Government of July, than during the forty years preceding, by all the former Governments. The first Revolution was lavish of promises, without troubling itself about the performance. The Imperial Government exhausted itself in efforts to regenerate the higher instruction, called secondary; but did nothing for that of the people. The restored Dynasty, up to 1828, expended no more than 50,000 francs annually upon primary instruction. The Ministry of 1828 obtained from the Chamber a grant of 300,000 francs. Since the Revolution of July, 1830, a million has been voted annually—that is, more in two years than the Restoration in fifteen. Those are the means, and here are the results. All of you are aware that primary instruction depends altogether on the corresponding Normal Schools. The prosperity of these establishments is the measure of *its* progress. The Imperial Government, which first pronounced with effect the words, Normal Schools, left us a legacy of one. The Restoration added five or six. Those, of which some were in their infancy, we have greatly improved within the last two years, and have, at the same time, established thirty new ones; twenty of which are in full operation, forming in each department a vast focus of light, scattering its rays in all directions among the people."

The Bill recognized two degrees of primary instruction, viz. elementary and superior, in speaking of which M. Guizot remarks:

"The first degree of instruction should be common to the country and the towns; it should be met with in the humblest borough, as well as in the largest city, wherever a human being is to be found within our land of France. By the teaching of reading, writing, and accounts, it provides for the most essential wants of life; by that of the legal system of weights and measures, and of the French language, it implants, enlarges, and spreads every where the spirit and unity of the French nationality; finally, by moral and religious instruction, it provides for another class of wants quite as real as the others, and which Providence has placed in the hearts of the poorest, as well as of the richest, in this world, for upholding the dignity of human life and the protection of social order. The first degree of instruction is extensive enough to make a man of him who will receive it, and is, at the same time, sufficiently limited to be every where realized. It is the strict debt of the country toward all its children.

But the law is so framed, that by higher elementary schools, primary in-

struction can be so developed, so varied, as to satisfy the wants of those professions which, though not scientific, yet require to be acquainted with 'the elements of science, as they apply it every day in the office, the workshop, and field.'"

On the plan of supervision of schools, which embraced both local and state inspection, the Minister remarks:

"In the first place, this operation demands, at certain times of the year, much more time, application, and patience, than can reasonably be expected from men of the world, like the member of the council of the *arrondissement* and of the department; or from men of business, necessarily confined to their homes, like the members of the municipal council. In the next place, positive and technical knowledge of the various matters on which the examination turns is absolutely necessary; and it is not sufficient to *have* such knowledge, it must have been proved to exist, in order to give to these examinations the requisite weight and authority. For these reasons, the members of these commissions ought to be, in great part, men specially qualified—men familiar with the business of tuition. It is evident that primary instruction rests entirely on these examinations. Suppose a little negligence, a little false indulgence, a little ignorance, and it is all over with primary instruction. It is necessary then, to compose these commissions with the most scrupulous severity, and to appoint only persons versed in the matter."

The necessity of providing for the professional education and training of teachers is thus eloquently set forth:

"All the provisions hitherto described would be of none effect, if we took no pains to procure for the public school thus constituted, an able master, and worthy of the high vocation of instructing the people. It can not be too often repeated, that it is the master that makes the school.] And, indeed, what a well-assorted union of qualities is required to constitute a good schoolmaster! A good schoolmaster ought to be a man who knows much more than he is called upon to teach, that he may teach with intelligence and with taste; who is to live in a humble sphere, and yet to have a noble and elevated mind, that he may preserve that dignity of sentiment and of deportment, without which he will never obtain the respect and confidence of families; who possesses a rare mixture of gentleness and firmness; for, inferior though he be in station to many individuals in the *commune*, he ought to be the obsequious servant of none;—a man not ignorant of his rights, but thinking much more of his duties; showing to all a good example, and serving to all as a counselor; not given to change his condition, but satisfied with his situation, because it gives him the power of doing good; and who has made up his mind to live and to die in the service of primary instruction, which to him is the service of God and his fellow-creatures. To rear masters approaching to such a model is a difficult task; and yet we must succeed in it, or else we have done nothing for elementary instruction. A bad schoolmaster, like a bad parish priest, is a scourge to a *commune*; and though we are often obliged to be contented with indifferent ones, we must do our best to improve the average quality. We have, therefore, availed ourselves of a bright thought struck out in the heat of the Revolution, by a decree of the National Convention, in 1794, and afterward applied by Napoleon, in his decree, in 1808, for the organization of the University, to the establishment of his central Normal School at Paris. We carry its application still lower than he did in the social scale, when we propose that no school-master shall be appointed who has not himself been a pupil of the school which instructs in the art of teaching, and who is not certified, after a strict examination, to have profited by the opportunities he has enjoyed."

No statesman of any age or country, has expressed in language at once eloquent and just, a more exalted estimate of the mission of the teacher. The same views had already been earnestly expressed by M. Cousin in his Report to the Minister:

As every *commune* must have its primary school, so every department must be required to vote funds for a teachers' Seminary, on condition that you take upon

yourself, 1. the salary of the director, whom you would nominate; 2. the books, maps, and instruments necessary for the use of the students. It must be laid down as a principle, that every department must have its Normal School; but that school should be proportioned to the extent and the wealth of the department, and it may, with equal propriety, be small in one and large in another. I take the liberty of referring to a very simple and very economical plan on which a primary Normal School may at first be organized.

Choose the best-conducted primary school in the department, that which is in the hands of the master of the greatest ability and trust-worthiness. Annex to this school a class called Normal, in which this same master shall teach his art to a certain number of young men of the department, who are willing to come to it to form themselves for schoolmasters. None should be admitted till after an examination, made by a commission appointed by you. This commission must send you the results of its labors; and it would be well that the admission of the students to the primary Normal School should be signed by you, as is the case in the admission of students to the great Normal School for the instruction of the second degree. This small Normal School ought never to be placed in a very large town, the influence of which would be adverse to that spirit of poverty, humility and peace, so necessary to the students. There is no objection to their being day-pupils, provided they are responsible for their conduct out of the house. Nor is it necessary that all should receive exhibitions, or purses, especially whole purses. In all small towns there are families in which a young man may be boarded and lodged for about 300 francs a year, (\$60;) so that 3000 francs, (\$600,) prudently divided into whole, half, and quarter purses, would easily defray the cost of ten or fifteen students. Give the master the title of Director of the Normal School, which would be a real gain to him, inasmuch as it would increase his consideration; and for the additional labor you impose upon him, give him a salary of 700 or 800 francs. Add a yearly allowance of 400 or 500 francs for books, maps, and other things required in teaching; and thus, for 5000 francs, (\$1000,) at the utmost, you have a small Normal School, which will be extremely useful to the department. The pupils should be permitted to leave it if they choose, in a year, provided they be able to go through the examination at quitting, on which depends their obtaining the brevet of primary teacher. Yes, it rests with you, by means of a circular to this effect, addressed to all the prefects of the kingdom, to have in a few months, eighty-four small primary Normal Schools in France. The plan which I propose does not commit you to any future measures, yet it at once covers France with Normal Schools which will supply our first wants. It is for time, zeal, intelligence, and perseverance to do the rest. There must always necessarily be a great difference among the Normal Schools of our eighty-four departments; but the best way is, to go on gradually improving, in proportion as experience shows you what is required. Even with this wise tardiness, three or four years will suffice to improve all these small Normal Schools, and to raise a great number to the rank of complete great Normal Schools.

The difference between a great and a small Normal School consists in this: a small Normal School is only an appendage to a primary school, whilst a great Normal School is an establishment subsisting by and for itself, to which a primary school (and if possible that should comprise both an elementary and a middle school) is annexed.

This difference gives the measure of all other differences. In the small Normal School there are only day-pupils, or at most a few boarders. In the great, the majority may be boarders. In the one, the course may be terminated in a year; in the other, it should extend through two years, as at Brühl; and even, in time, according to the resources of the

departments and the progress of public education, it might embrace three years, as in most of the great Normal Schools of Prussia,—Potsdam, for example. The departments must be the judges of their resources and of their wants. A department which wants twenty schoolmasters a year, and which has a certain number of middle or burgher schools, as well as many elementary schools, can very well receive twenty pupils a year; which, supposing the course to occupy two or three years, amounts to forty or sixty pupils at a time in the school. Then there must be accommodation for boarding them, a large building, a greater number of masters, more exhibitions, (*bourses*,) more expense of every sort.

In the hope that the few great primary Normal Schools we already possess will soon be succeeded by others, I beg your attention to the following maxims, deduced from general experience, and from all the data I have accumulated here.

I. To begin by giving instructions rather than rules; to confine yourself in these instructions to the establishing of a few essential points, and to leave the rest to the departmental committee. To discuss and decide this small number of points in the royal council; not to multiply them, but inflexibly to enforce their execution. The fewer they are, the more easy will this execution be, and the more susceptible will they be of application to all the Normal Schools of France; so that there would be a common groundwork for all; a unity, which, passing from the Normal Schools into the whole body of popular education, would have a beneficial influence in strengthening the national unity. At the same time, this unity would not be prejudicial to local diversities; for the departmental committee would be desired to apply your general instructions according to the peculiar manners or usages of the department. From the combination of the uniformity of these instructions, with the diversity of arrangements which the prudence and intelligence of the committee, and the experience of each year, will recommend, a set of regulations for each Normal School will gradually arise, more or less definitive, and therefore fit to be made public. The plan of study of the great Normal School at Paris, for the supply of the royal and communal *colleges*, is the fruit of fifteen years' experience. This school, which was founded in 1810, had no written laws till 1815. We made important modifications in those laws at the Revolution of 1830, and it was not till then that we ventured to print them, as the result, nearly definitive, or at least likely to endure for some time, of all the experiments successively tried. Let us imitate this caution, and begin with a simple set of instructions from the minister. Rules for the studies and the discipline will gradually arise. Every year will modify them. The important thing is, to exact an accurate account of the proceedings and results of the year, drawn up by the director, and transmitted to you, together with all the necessary documents, by the departmental committee and the prefect, who will subjoin their own opinion. Then, and then only, you will interpose your authority, with that of the royal council, which will revise this report every year at the vacation, and pronounce on the improvements to be introduced.

II. To attach the greatest possible importance to the choice of a director. It is a principle generally established in Prussia, that the goodness of a Normal School is in exact proportion to the goodness of the director; just as the primary school is what its master is. What constitutes a Normal School is not a fine building; on the contrary, it is not amiss that it should not be over commodious or splendid. It is not even the excellence of the regulations, which, without a faithful and intelligent execution of them, are only a useless bit of paper. A Normal School is what its director is. He is the life and soul of it. If he is a man of ability, he will turn the poorest and humblest elements to account; if he is incapable, the best and most prolific will remain sterile in his hands. Let us by no means

make our directors mere house-stewards. A director ought to be at the head of the most important branches of instruction, and to set an example to all the other masters. He must have long fulfilled the duties of a master; first, in different classes of a Normal course of education, so that he may have a general knowledge of the whole system; secondly, in *several* Normal Schools, so that he may have experience of difficulties of various kinds; lastly, he must not be placed at the head of a Normal School or the highest class, till he has been director of several of an inferior class, so as to graduate promotion according to merit, and thus keep up an honorable emulation.

III. An excellent practice in Germany is, to place the candidates, immediately on their leaving the Normal School, as assistant masters in schools which admit of two. The young men thus go through at least a year of apprenticeship,—a very useful novitiate: they gain age and experience, and their final appointment depends on their conduct as assistant masters. I regard every gradation as extremely useful, and I think a little graduated scale of powers and duties might be advantageously introduced into primary instruction.

1st. Pupil of a Normal School admitted after competition, holding a more or less high rank in the examination list at the end of each year, and quitting the school with such or such a number. 2d. Same pupil promoted to the situation of assistant master. 3d. Schoolmaster successively in different schools rising in salary and in importance. 4th. After distinguished services, master in a primary Normal School. 5th. Lastly, director of a school of that class, with the prospect of gradually rising to be director of a numerous and wealthy Normal School, which would be a post equal to that of professor of a royal college. The human soul lives in the future. It is ambitious, because it is infinite. Let us then open to it a progressive career, even in the humblest occupations.

IV. We can not be too deeply impressed with this truth—that paid instruction is better than gratuitous instruction. The entire sum paid for board at a Normal School must be extremely moderate, for the young men of the poorest classes to be able to pay it. We must give only quarter or half exhibitions, (*bourses*,) reserving two or three whole ones for the two or three young men, out of the fifteen admitted annually, who stand first on the list; and even this should not be continued to them the second year, unless their conduct had been irreproachable and their application unremitting.

On the same principle as that laid down above, the elementary school annexed to the Normal School ought not to be entirely gratuitous; it ought to have no other masters than the forwardest pupils of the Normal School, acting under the direction of their masters. The profits of the elementary school for practice would go to diminish the total cost of the Normal School. As for the middle school for practice, it would be contrary to the principle of all middle schools to have it gratuitous.

V. Divide the studies of all Normal Schools into two parts: during the first, the pupils should be considered simply as students, whose acquirements are to be confirmed, extended, and methodized: during the second, as masters, who are to be theoretically and practically taught the art of teaching. If the Normal course only lasts a year, this part of it ought to occupy at least six months; if it lasts two years, it ought to occupy a year; if three years, it would still occupy only a year. The students in this last year would give lessons in the elementary and middle schools annexed to the Normal School.

VI. The examination at quitting ought to be more rigid than that at entering the school. The important thing is to have young men of good capacity, even if they know little; for they will learn rapidly; while some, who might not be deficient in a certain quantity of acquired know-

ledge, but were dull or wrong-headed, could never be made good schoolmasters. No latitude whatever must be left to the Commission of Examination at departure. Here, intelligence must show itself in positive attainments, since opportunity to acquire them has been given. Nothing but negligence can have stood in their way, and that negligence would be the greatest of all faults. This latter examination, therefore, must be directed to ascertain the acquired, and not the natural fitness. But in the examination on entering, I wish that the Commission should more particularly inquire into the talents and natural bent, and, above all, into the moral character and disposition. A little discretionary power ought to be confided to it. This applies more especially to those Normal Schools, the course of which lasts two or three years. Three years of study will not give intelligence; but they will give all the necessary attainments in abundance.

VII. It is my earnest desire, that conferences* should be formed among the schoolmasters of each canton. I wish it, but have but little hope of it, at least at first. Such conferences suppose both too great a love for their profession, and too great a familiarity with the spirit of association. A thing much more easy to accomplish is, that during the vacations of the primary schools, a certain number of masters should repair to the Normal School of the department to perfect themselves in this or that particular branch, and to receive lessons appropriate to their wants, as is the case in Prussia. This time would be very usefully, and even very agreeably employed; for the young masters would be brought into contact with their old instructors and companions, and would have an opportunity of renewing and cementing old friendships. Here would be an interesting prospect for them every year. For such an object, we must not grudge a little expense for their journey and their residence. I should therefore wish that the vacations of the primary schools, which must be regulated by certain agricultural labors, should always precede those of the primary Normal Schools, in order that the masters of the former might be able to take advantage of the lessons in the latter, and might be present at the parting examinations of the third year, which would be an excellent exercise for the young acting masters.

I am convinced of the utility of having an inspector of primary schools for each department, who would spend the greater part of the year in going from school to school, in stirring up the zeal of the masters, in giving a right direction to that of the communal committees, and in keeping up a general and very beneficial harmony among the *maires* and the *cures*. It is unnecessary for me to say, that this inspector ought always to be some old master of a Normal School, selected for his talents, and still more for his tried character. But if this institution, which is universal in Germany, were not popular among us, nearly the same results might be obtained by authorizing the director, or in default of him, some masters of the Normal School, to visit a certain number of the schools of the department every year, during the vacation of their own school, and to do what would be done by the inspector above named. They would find great facilities from their old habits of intercourse and friendship with most of the masters, over whom they would exercise almost a paternal influence. On the other hand, they would gain by these visits, and would acquire a continually increasing experience, which would turn to the advantage of the Normal Schools. You have seen that in Prussia, besides the visits of the circle-inspectors, the directors of Normal Schools make visitations of this kind, for which they receive some very slender remuneration; for these little journeys are sources of pleasure to them, as well as of utility to the public.

* See notes to Professor Stowe's Essay, page 239.

VIII. Let solidity, rather than extent, be aimed at, in the course of instruction. The young masters must know a few things fundamentally, rather than many things superficially. Vague and superficial attainments must be avoided at any rate. The steady continuous labor which must be gone through to know anything whatsoever thoroughly, is an admirable discipline for the mind. Besides, nothing is so prolific as one thing well known; it is an excellent starting point for a thousand others. The final examinations must be mainly directed to the elements,—they must probe to the bottom, they must keep solidity always in view.

IX. Avoid ambitious methods and exclusive systems: attend, above all, to results, that is to say, to solid acquirements; and, with a view to them, consult experience. Clear explanations on every subject, connectedness and continuity in the lessons, with an ardent love for the business of teaching, are worth all the general rules and methods in the world.

X. A branch of study common to all schools ought to be the French tongue; the just pronunciation of words, and the purity and correctness of language. By this means the national language would insensibly supersede the rude unintelligible dialects and provincialisms. In the Normal Schools where German is still the language of the people, German and French must both be taught, in order not to offend against local attachments, and at the same time to implant the spirit of nationality.

XI. Without neglecting physical science, and the knowledge applicable to the arts of life, we must make moral science, which is of far higher importance, our main object. The mind and the character are what a true master ought, above all, to fashion. We must lay the foundations of moral life in the souls of our young masters, and therefore we must place religious instruction,—that is, to speak distinctly, Christian instruction,—in the first rank in the education of our Normal Schools. Leaving to the *cure*, or to the pastor of the place, the care of instilling the doctrines peculiar to each communion, we must constitute religion a special object of instruction, which must have its place in each year of the Normal course; so that at the end of the entire course, the young masters, without being theologians, may have a clear and precise knowledge of the history, doctrines, and, above all, the moral precepts of Christianity. Without this, the pupils, when they become masters, would be incapable of giving any other religious instruction than the mechanical repetition of the catechism, which would be quite insufficient. I would particularly urge this point, which is the most important and the most delicate of all. Before we can decide on what should constitute a true primary Normal School, we must determine what ought to be the character of a simple elementary school, that is, a humble village school. The popular schools of a nation ought to be imbued with the religious spirit of that nation. Now without going into the question of diversities of doctrine, is Christianity, or is it not, the religion of the people of France? It can not be denied that it is. I ask then, is it our object to respect the religion of the people, or to destroy it? If we mean to set about destroying it, then, I allow, we ought by no means to have it taught in the people's schools. But if the object we propose to ourselves is totally different, we must teach our children that religion which civilized our fathers; that religion whose liberal spirit prepared, and can alone sustain, all the great institutions of modern times. We must also permit the clergy to fulfil their first duty,—the superintendence of religious instruction. But in order to stand the test of this superintendence with honor, the schoolmaster must be enabled to give adequate religious instruction; otherwise parents, in order to be sure that their children receive a good religious education, will require us to appoint ecclesiastics as schoolmasters, which, though assuredly better than having irreligious schoolmasters, would be liable to very serious objections of various kinds. The less we desire our schools to be ecclesiastical, the

more ought they to be Christian. It necessarily follows, that there must be a course of special religious instruction in our Normal Schools. Religion is, in my eyes, the best, perhaps the only, basis of popular education. I know something of Europe, and never have I seen good schools where the spirit of Christian charity was wanting. Primary instruction flourishes in three countries, Holland, Scotland, and Germany; in all it is profoundly religious. It is said to be so in America. The little popular instruction I ever found in Italy came from the priests. In France, with few exceptions, our best schools for the poor are those of the *Freres de la Doctrine Chretienne*. (Brothers of the Christian Doctrine.) These are facts which it is necessary to be incessantly repeating to certain persons. Let them go into the schools of the poor,—let them learn what patience, what resignation, are required to induce a man to persevere in so toilsome an employment. Have better nurses ever been found than those benevolent nuns who bestow on poverty all those attentions we pay to wealth? There are things in human society which can neither be conceived nor accomplished without virtue,—that is to say, when speaking of the mass, without religion. The schools for the middle classes may be an object of speculation; but the country schools, the miserable little schools in the south, in the west, in Brittany, in the mountains of Auvergne, and, without going so far, the lowest schools of our great cities, of Paris itself, will never hold out any adequate inducement to persons seeking a remunerating occupation. There will doubtless be some philosophers inspired with the ardent philanthropy of Saint Vincent de Paule, without his religious enthusiasm, who would devote themselves to this austere vocation; but the question is not to have here and there a master. We have more than forty thousand schools to serve, and it were wise to call religion to the aid of our insufficient means, were it but for the alleviation of the pecuniary burdens of the nation. Either you must lavish the treasures of the state, and the revenues of the *communes*, in order to give high salaries, and even pensions, to that new order of tradesmen called schoolmasters; or you must not imagine you can do without Christian charity, and that spirit of poverty, humility, courageous resignation, and modest dignity, which Christianity, rightly understood and wisely taught, can alone give to the teachers of the people. The more I think of all this, the more I look at the schools in this country, the more I talk with the directors of Normal Schools and councilors of the ministry, the more I am strengthened in the conviction that we must make any efforts or any sacrifices to come to a good understanding with the clergy on the subject of popular education, and to constitute religion a special and very carefully-taught branch of instruction in our primary Normal Schools.

I am not ignorant that this advice will grate on the ears of many persons, and that I shall be thought extremely devout at Paris. Yet it is not from Rome, but from Berlin, that I address you. The man who holds this language to you is a philosopher, formerly disliked, and even persecuted, by the priesthood; but this philosopher has a mind too little affected by the recollection of his own insults, and is too well acquainted with human nature and with history, not to regard religion as an indestructible power: genuine Christianity, as a means of civilization for the people, and a necessary support for those on whom society imposes irksome and humble duties, without the slightest prospect of fortune, without the least gratification of self-love.

I am now arrived at the termination of this long report. May it be of use to you in the important work which now engages your attention! My illustrious colleague, M. Cuvier, has already exhibited to France the organization of primary instruction in Holland. The experience of Germany, and particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us. National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true

VIII. Let solidity, rather than extent, be aimed at, in the course of instruction. The young masters must know a few things fundamentally, rather than many things superficially. Vague and superficial attainments must be avoided at any rate. The steady continuous labor which must be gone through to know anything whatsoever thoroughly, is an admirable discipline for the mind. Besides, nothing is so prolific as one thing well known; it is an excellent starting point for a thousand others. The final examinations must be mainly directed to the elements,—they must probe to the bottom, they must keep solidity always in view.

IX. Avoid ambitious methods and exclusive systems: attend, above all, to results, that is to say, to solid acquirements; and, with a view to them, consult experience. Clear explanations on every subject, connectedness and continuity in the lessons, with an ardent love for the business of teaching, are worth all the general rules and methods in the world.

X. A branch of study common to all schools ought to be the French tongue; the just pronunciation of words, and the purity and correctness of language. By this means the national language would insensibly supersede the rude unintelligible dialects and provincialisms. In the Normal Schools where German is still the language of the people, German and French must both be taught, in order not to offend against local attachments, and at the same time to implant the spirit of nationality.

XI. Without neglecting physical science, and the knowledge applicable to the arts of life, we must make moral science, which is of far higher importance, our main object. The mind and the character are what a true master ought, above all, to fashion. We must lay the foundations of moral life in the souls of our young masters, and therefore we must place religious instruction,—that is, to speak distinctly, Christian instruction,—in the first rank in the education of our Normal Schools. Leaving to the *cure*, or to the pastor of the place, the care of instilling the doctrines peculiar to each communion, we must constitute religion a special object of instruction, which must have its place in each year of the Normal course; so that at the end of the entire course, the young masters, without being theologians, may have a clear and precise knowledge of the history, doctrines, and, above all, the moral precepts of Christianity. Without this, the pupils, when they become masters, would be incapable of giving any other religious instruction than the mechanical repetition of the catechism, which would be quite insufficient. I would particularly urge this point, which is the most important and the most delicate of all. Before we can decide on what should constitute a true primary Normal School, we must determine what ought to be the character of a simple elementary school, that is, a humble village school. The popular schools of a nation ought to be imbued with the religious spirit of that nation. Now without going into the question of diversities of doctrine, is Christianity, or is it not, the religion of the people of France? It can not be denied that it is. I ask then, is it our object to respect the religion of the people, or to destroy it? If we mean to set about destroying it, then, I allow, we ought by no means to have it taught in the people's schools. But if the object we propose to ourselves is totally different, we must teach our children that religion which civilized our fathers; that religion whose liberal spirit prepared, and can alone sustain, all the great institutions of modern times. We must also permit the clergy to fulfil their first duty,—the superintendence of religious instruction. But in order to stand the test of this superintendence with honor, the schoolmaster must be enabled to give adequate religious instruction; otherwise parents, in order to be sure that their children receive a good religious education, will require us to appoint ecclesiastics as schoolmasters, which, though assuredly better than having irreligious schoolmasters, would be liable to very serious objections of various kinds. The less we desire our schools to be ecclesiastical, the

more ought they to be Christian. It necessarily follows, that there must be a course of special religious instruction in our Normal Schools. Religion is, in my eyes, the best, perhaps the only, basis of popular education. I know something of Europe, and never have I seen good schools where the spirit of Christian charity was wanting. Primary instruction flourishes in three countries, Holland, Scotland, and Germany; in all it is profoundly religious. It is said to be so in America. The little popular instruction I ever found in Italy came from the priests. In France, with few exceptions, our best schools for the poor are those of the *Freres de la Doctrine Chretienne*. (Brothers of the Christian Doctrine.) These are facts which it is necessary to be incessantly repeating to certain persons. Let them go into the schools of the poor,—let them learn what patience, what resignation, are required to induce a man to persevere in so toilsome an employment. Have better nurses ever been found than those benevolent nuns who bestow on poverty all those attentions we pay to wealth? There are things in human society which can neither be conceived nor accomplished without virtue,—that is to say, when speaking of the mass, without religion. The schools for the middle classes may be an object of speculation; but the country schools, the miserable little schools in the south, in the west, in Brittany, in the mountains of Auvergne, and, without going so far, the lowest schools of our great cities, of Paris itself, will never hold out any adequate inducement to persons seeking a remunerating occupation. There will doubtless be some philosophers inspired with the ardent philanthropy of Saint Vincent de Paule, without his religious enthusiasm, who would devote themselves to this austere vocation; but the question is not to have here and there a master. We have more than forty thousand schools to serve, and it were wise to call religion to the aid of our insufficient means, were it but for the alleviation of the pecuniary burdens of the nation. Either you must lavish the treasures of the state, and the revenues of the *communes*, in order to give high salaries, and even pensions, to that new order of tradesmen called schoolmasters; or you must not imagine you can do without Christian charity, and that spirit of poverty, humility, courageous resignation, and modest dignity, which Christianity, rightly understood and wisely taught, can alone give to the teachers of the people. The more I think of all this, the more I look at the schools in this country, the more I talk with the directors of Normal Schools and councilors of the ministry, the more I am strengthened in the conviction that we must make any efforts or any sacrifices to come to a good understanding with the clergy on the subject of popular education, and to constitute religion a special and very carefully-taught branch of instruction in our primary Normal Schools.

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greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates.

With such enlarged views of the scope and agencies of a national system of primary instruction, and especially of the place to be filled in it by the teacher,—with such careful reference to the traditions of France and the experience of other countries in this regard, the bill framed and introduced by M. Guizot was referred in each Chamber to a committee, composed of men at heart favorable to the object, although differing as to the mode of its accomplishment. After able reports by these committees, through M. Renouard in the Lower, and M. Cousin in the Upper House, and after protracted discussions of each feature, the bill received the sanction of both Chambers and of the King, and became a law on the 28th of June, 1833.

The law in full, as it passed, and also the law of March 15, 1850, will be found in the Appendix, as worthy of a place in the School Codes of Nations, and an exposition of the aims and motives of the framer will be given further on in the language of M. Guizot. As part of our narrative we add a condensed statement of its provisions, drawn up several years since, when the original law was in successful operation, as shown by the official statistics of 1848.

The law ordains at least one elementary school in every commune, and those communes in which the population exceeds 6,000, are required to support one superior primary school, and are aided in opening infant schools, evening schools, classes for adults, and high schools.

Where the number of families of different sects is sufficient, the Minister of Public Instruction is authorized to grant permission, if advisable so to do, to the commune to establish separate schools for the children of each denomination.

The central government, the departmental authorities, the municipal authorities, the religious authorities, the heads of families, have each their sphere of action, and their influence in the administration of primary schools.

The local management of a primary school is intrusted to a committee of the commune, consisting of the mayor, the president of the council, the *curé*, or pastor, and one person appointed by the committee of the *arrondissement* in which the commune is situated.

The general supervision of the schools of each *arrondissement* is assigned to a committee of the *arrondissement*, which consists of the mayor of the chief town, of the *juge de paix*, a pastor of each of the recognized religious sects, a professor of a college or school of secondary instruction, a primary schoolmaster, three members of the council of the *arrondissement*, and the members of the council-general of the department who reside in the *arrondissement*.

These committees meet once a month. The communal committees inspect and report the condition of the schools in the commune to the committee of the *arrondissement*. Some member of the committee of the *arrondissement* is present at each local inspection, and a report of the whole committee on the state of education in the *arrondissement* is made annually to the Minister of Public Instruction.

In each department there is a commission of primary education, composed of at least seven members, among which there must be a minister of each of the religious denominations recognized by law, and at least three persons who are at the time, or have been, engaged in teaching public schools of secondary instruction. This committee is charged with the examination of all candidates for the certificate of qualification to

teach primary schools, or to enter the Normal School of the department. These examinations must be public, at a time fixed, and notified by the minister, and in the chief town of the department. The examination is varied according to the grade of school for which the candidate applies. With a certificate of capacity from this commission, the candidate can teach in any commune in the department, without any local examination.

Besides these local committees the minister of public instruction appoints an inspector for every department, with assistant inspectors, when required by the exigences of the public service. The duty of the inspector is to visit every school in the department, at least once a year, and to inquire into the state of the school-house, the classification, moral character, and methods of discipline and instruction of each school. He must leave a written memorandum of all deficiencies noted in his visit, for the use of the local committee, and report annually to the prefect of the department, and through him to the minister. This stimulates and encourages teachers, as well as communes, and informs the minister of the true wants of different localities, as well as the deficiencies of the law. The inspectors are required to pay particular attention to the Normal Schools in their several departments. The inspector has a salary of two thousand francs, and an allowance of three francs a day for traveling expenses, and one franc for every school visited. In 1843 there were eighty-seven inspectors, and one hundred and fourteen sub-inspectors; and the number of communes visited by them in that year, was 30,081, making 50,986 visits to schools.

The resources of the state, the departments, the communes, and the contributions paid by parents, combine to insure the creation and maintenance of the school. Every commune must provide a school-house and residence for the school-master, and to the first expense of this outfit, the state contributes one third. Every teacher must have a lodging, or its equivalent in money, and a fixed salary of 200 francs, or 400 francs, (from \$40 to \$80,) according to the grade of school, in addition to the monthly fees paid by parents, and collected by the commune. If the commune refuses, or neglects to provide by tax on the property of the commune, the government imposes and collects the same. If the commune, on account of poverty or disaster to crops or depression in business, can not raise its necessary sum, the department to which it belongs must provide it, and if the revenues of the department are not sufficient to supply the deficiencies of all the communes, the deficit must be supplied by the state. In every department, the prefect and general-council, annually draw up in concert a special estimate in which the expense of primary instruction is fixed, and necessary revenue provided. In each commune, the Mayor and municipal council make a special estimate of the same kind; and at the same time fix the monthly tuition-fee to be paid by each parent.

Every department must by itself, or in concert with adjoining departments, support a Normal School, to supply the annual demand for teachers of primary schools. The sum to be expended on a Normal School, for the salaries of teachers, apparatus, and bursaries, or scholarships in aid of poor pupils, is not left with the department to fix, but is regulated by the council of public instruction. The salary of the Director is borne by the state and department combined; that of the assistant teachers by the department. The expense of the normal pupils for board is borne by themselves, unless they enjoy an exhibition or scholarship, founded by the state, department, university, commune, or by individual benevolence. The scholarships are sometimes divided so as to meet, in part, the expense of two or three pupils. In 1816, there were ninety-two Normal Schools, seventy-six of which were for the education of schoolmasters, and sixteen

for the education of schoolmistresses. To fifty-two of these schools enough land is attached to teach agriculture and horticulture.

The course of instruction in these elementary schools, embraces Moral and Religious Instruction, Reading, Writing, the elements of Arithmetic, elements of the French Language, legal system of Weights and Measures, Geography. (particularly of France,) History, (particularly of France,) Linear Drawing, and Singing. In the superior primary schools, or High School, the above course is extended so as to embrace Modern Languages, Book-keeping, Perspective Drawing, Chemistry, and the Mathematics, in their application to the arts. There is a special course of instruction open in evening schools, to those children and youth who can not attend the day school; and in evening classes for adults, whose early education was neglected, or who may wish to pursue particular studies connected with their pursuits as artizans, manufacturers, and master-workmen.

Provision is made to encourage teachers to form associations, and to hold frequent conferences for improvement in their professional knowledge and skill, and to found libraries of books on education.

In each department a fund is accumulating for the relief of aged teachers, and of the widows and children of teachers, who die in the exercise of their important functions. Each master must subscribe one twentieth part of the salary he receives from the commune; and the sum-total which he subscribes, together with the interest upon it, is returned to him when he retires, or to his widow and children, when he dies.

The government awards medals of silver and bronze to those masters who distinguish themselves in the management of their schools. This encourages and stimulates them to continued efforts, and connects them in an honorable way, with the government and the nation.

The whole charge to the State of the department of public instruction, according to the Budget of 1838. was 19,005,673 francs, or nearly \$4,000,000, which was distributed as follows:

	Francs.
Central Administration,	686 623
General Services,	238,000
Department and Academic Administration,	919,900
Superior Instruction, faculties,	1,972 050
Secondary Instruction,	1,655,600
Elementary Instruction, general fund,	1,600,000
do. do. additional,	3,500,000
Primary Normal School,	200,000
Literary and Scientific establishments,	7,676 500
Subscriptions to Literary Works, &c.	557,000

Total, 19,005,673
or \$3,800,354.

This does not include the sum to be raised in the departments and communes, or contributed by parents.

From the reports of the Minister of Public Instruction, for 1843, it appears that in the ten years, from 1833 to 1843, France expended the sum of £ 2,565,883 (about \$11,000,000.) on the erection of school-houses, and residences for teachers. In 1843, the expenditure for the current expenses of her educational establishments was a little short of \$4,000,000, independent of the sum paid by the communes, individuals, and parents in school fees, which amount to near \$5,000,000. Even this sum was found insufficient, and since that date the appropriation has been increased. In 1833 there was one person in every eighteen of the population, receiving education, while in 1843, there was one in every ten.

TABLE I.

EXHIBITING THE NUMBERS OF SCHOOLS ENRAGED IN THE UNIVERSITY OF FRANCE IN 1857.

Academies.	Departments.	Royal Colleges.	Professors.	Internal Students.	External Students.	Common Colleges.	Institutions.	Boarding Schools.	Normal Schools.	Primary Schools.
Aix,	4	1	14	160	230	16	5	41	2	1,659
Amiens,	3	1	12	121	180	10	2	50	2	2,697
Angers,	3	1	12	118	110	18	1	17	2	1,212
Besancon,	3	1	12	110	160	15	2	21	—	1,671
Bordeaux,	3	1	13	170	120	7	5	54	2	1,209
Bourges,	3	1	12	129	130	9	1	21	1	533
Caen,	3	1	15	212	290	16	1	25	3	2,340
Cahors,	3	2	22	90	160	9	1	47	2	1,451
Clermont,	4	3	42	287	292	12	—	30	4	1,121
Dijon,	3	1	13	88	150	20	—	36	2	1,655
Donai,	2	1	12	131	110	21	6	43	1	2,643
Grenoble,	3	1	14	133	141	7	4	25	2	1,120
Limoges,	3	1	11	88	220	2	6	18	3	264
Lyons,	3	1	20	276	264	6	10	52	3	1,470
Metz,	2	1	15	190	240	5	1	26	2	1,541
Montpellier,	4	2	23	199	256	17	2	36	—	1,766
Nancy,	3	1	14	110	260	15	—	25	3	2,444
Nimes,	4	3	39	365	226	10	2	26	4	1,594
Orleans,	3	2	24	241	286	5	3	31	2	730
Paris,	7	7	180	1629	3324	19	77	251	5	4,203
Pau,	3	1	12	57	90	10	1	32	—	1,724
Poitiers,	4	1	15	130	201	14	4	34	1	1,536
Rennes,	5	3	33	346	407	18	3	35	2	941
Rouen,	2	1	17	164	491	9	3	68	2	1,713
Strasbourg,	2	1	14	121	203	12	1	15	2	1,543
Toulouse,	4	1	15	112	239	9	6	55	2	1,327
Total,	86	41	626	5,779	8,870	318	146	1,114	54	42,318

TABLE VII.

SHOWING THE STATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN 1843.

Number of Colleges.	Royal, : : : : : 46	320
"	Communal, : : : : : 312	
Number of Scholars in Colleges	: : : : : 44,091	
Number of Institutions of Secondary Education, : : : :	: : : : : 103	
" Boarding Schools " " : : : :	: : : : : 914	
" Private Establishments " " : : : :	: : : : : 1,016	
" Public and Private " " : : : :	: : : : : 2,390	
Number of Scholars in the Institutions which follow the course of a College,	6,066	31,316
Number of Scholars in the Institutions which do not follow the course of a College,	25,250	
Number of Secondary Pupils,	69,341	
Population of the Departments, 1842,	34,194,875	
Proportion in each Department between the population and the total number of establishments of Secondary Education,	1 estab. for 24,887	
Number of Scholars in establishments of Secondary Education,	1 " " 493	
Number of Young Men between eight and eighteen in each Department,	3,182,397	
Proportion between the total number of Young Men between eight and eighteen, and the total number of pupils in Secondary Establishments in each Department,	1 school for 45 young men.	

TABLE II.

SHOWING THE CONDITION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT COMMUNES, IN 1843.

Number of arrondissements	363
Number of communes	37,038
Population	34,230,178
Number of communes provided with a primary school	34,578
Population of the communes provided with primary schools	33,080,002
Number of communes not yet provided with a primary school	2,460
Population of the communes not yet provided with primary schools	1,150,176
Number of communes who require several primary schools, and who possess only one	23
Number of communes who are required by law to support one superior primary school	290
Number of communes who ought to support superior primary schools, and who do support them	222
Population of these communes	4,177,047
Number of communes who ought to support several superior primary schools, and who support only one	23
Number of communes who are not required by law to support a superior primary school, and who do support one	103
Total number of primary schools, elementary and superior, for boys and girls, established in France in 1843	59,838
Total number of primary schools in the 86 departments of France, visited in 1843 by the 87 inspectors and 113 sub-inspectors	50,936
In addition to these schools for the youth there ought to be added 6,434 classes for the laborers, which are conducted by the primary school teachers in the evenings, after the day's work, or on the Sunday, and in which 95,064 adult laborers received instruction in 1843; and also a great number of infant schools which have been recently opened in the departments, and which are receiving great encouragement and attention from the Government.	

TABLE III.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS BELONGING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS.

Primary schools specially set apart for the Roman Catholics	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 33,207	{ 40,867	}	56,812
		Private schools	{ Girls . 7,660			
	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 7,098	{ 15,945	}	
		Private schools	{ Girls . 8,847			
Primary schools specially set apart for the Protestants . .	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 702	{ 761	}	1,080
		Private schools	{ Girls . 59			
	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 163	{ 39	}	
		Private schools	{ Girls . 156			
Primary schools specially set apart for the Jews	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 33	{ 37	}	115
		Private schools	{ Girls . 4			
	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 74	{ 78	}	
		Private schools	{ Girls . 4			
Mixed schools open for all three sects .	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 948	{ 1,055	}	1,831
		Private schools	{ Girls . 107			
	{	Public schools	{ Boys . 326	{ 776	}	
		Private schools	{ Girls . 450			
Total number of Primary Schools in France, in 1843, . : 59,838						

The number of the Roman Catholic population of France being 33,050,178, it follows, (see Table I.,) that in 1843, there was one primary school for every 581 Roman Catholics.

The number of the Protestant population of France being 1,000,000, it follows, that in 1843, there was one primary school for every 1,018 Protestants. The reason why the proportion of schools for the Protestants to their numbers is so small is, that very many of this sect attend the mixed schools.

The number of Jews being 80,000, it follows, that there was one school for every 695 Jews.

TABLE IV.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN ATTENDANCE AT THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of Scholars at the Public Elementary Primary Schools for Boys,			
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	1,699,586	}	1,857,017
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious Societies,	157,431		
Number of Scholars at the Public Superior Primary Schools for Boys,			
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	15,092	}	15,448
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious So- cieties,	356		
Number of Scholars at the Public Schools for Girls,			
Directed by Lay Schoolmistresses,	230,213	}	534,960
" " Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies,	304,747		
Number of Scholars at the Private Elementary Primary Schools for Boys.			
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	230,383	}	272,935
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious So- cieties,	42,552		
Number of Scholars at the Private Superior Primary Schools for Boys,			
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters,	3,469	}	4,272
" " Schoolmasters, members of Religious So- cieties,	803		
Number of Scholars at the Private Primary Schools for Girls,			
Directed by Lay Schoolmistresses,	278,637	}	479,665
" " Schoolmistresses, members of Religious Societies,	201,028		
Total number of Scholars at all the Primary Schools,			
Directed by Lay Schoolmasters or Schoolmistresses,	2,457,380	}	3,164,297
" " Schoolmasters or Schoolmistresses, mem- bers of Religious Societies,	706,917		
Total number of children attending the Primary Schools in 1843,			
3,164,297			
Total number of children admitted gratuitously into the Com- munal Schools in 1843,			
763,820			
Total number of children who paid something monthly for their education in 1843,			
2,400,447			

TABLE V.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND CONDITION OF THE CLASSES FOR ADULTS, FOR YOUNG GIRLS, AND FOR YOUNG APPRENTICES IN FRANCE, IN 1843.			
Number of classes for Adults,			6,434
“ “ “ Young Girls,			160
“ “ “ Apprentices,			36
Number of Infant Schools,			
Public,		685	} 1,489
Private,		804	
Number of Scholars,			
In the classes for Adults,		95,064	} 108,432
“ “ “ Young Girls,		5,908	
“ “ “ Schools for Apprentices,		1,268	
“ “ “ Infant Schools,		96,192	
Number of communes in which there are Adult Classes,		6,043	
Number of Adult Classes,			
for Men,			6,266
“ “ “ Women,			168
Number of persons who frequent them,			
for Men,			9,451
“ “ “ Women,			4,613
Number of Classes directed by			
Schoolmasters belonging to a Religious Society,			125
Schoolmistresses, “ “ “ “			51
Number of Adult Classes in which are taught			
Moral and Religious Instruction,			3,331
Reading,			5,035
Writing,			4,483
Arithmetic,			4,456
System of Weights and Measures,			3,857
Linear Drawing,			271
Vocal Music,			107
Resources of these Classes,			
Sums furnished by the Communes,		136,836	} Franca. 201,886
“ “ “ Departments,		38,350	
“ “ “ State,		26,700	

TABLE VI.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF FRANCE, IN 1843.			
Number of Normal Schools thoroughly organized,			78
Number to which a garden is joined for the purpose of teaching the pupils the culture of trees,			52
Number of Professors in these schools,			495
“ “ “ including the Directors,			573
Number of hours devoted weekly to the different branches of education :			
	1st Year.	2d Year.	3d Year.
Moral and Religious Instruction	2½	2½	2½
Reading,	3½	3	2
Writing,	4½	4½	4
Study of the French Language,	6	5½	4½
History and Geography,	3½	4½	3½
Arithmetic,	5	3½	3
Use of the Globes,	2	2½	2
Elements of Practical Geometry,	4	3½	3½
Elements of Physics and Natural History,	2½	2½	3½
“ “ “ Mechanics,	2	2½	3
“ “ “ Surveying,	2	2½	3
Linear Drawing,	3½	4	4½
Methods of teaching,	1½	1½	2½
Vocal Music,	3½	3½	3½
Civil Law,	2	1½	1½
Culture of Trees,	1½	1½	1½

FRANCE.

The following summary of the Budget for 1856, will exhibit at a glance, the wide range of institutions and objects embraced in the French scheme of public Instruction, as well as the liberality of the government to this department.

BUDGET OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION FOR 1856.

I. EXPENSES CHARGEABLE TO THE GENERAL FUNDS OF THE STATE.

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION.

Chap. 1. <i>Personnel</i> , (Minister, Employés, &c.).....	472,250 fr.
1. Indemnities to certain employés and assistants,.....	6,100 fr.
2. <i>Matériel</i> , (Expenses of offices, &c.)	100,000 fr.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

3. General Inspectors of Public Instruction,.....	232,000
4. General services of Public Instruction,.....	184,000
5. Superior Normal School,.....	178,610
6. Administration of Academies,.....	817,600

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

7. Subventions,	800,000
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SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

8. General Expenses,.....	51,000
9. Lyceums and Colleges,.....	1,400,000
10. Scholarships, (<i>bourses</i> ,) and reduction of fees,.....	710,950

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

11. Inspection of primary schools,.....	723,000
12. Expenses of chargeable to the general fund of the State,	4,970,000

SCIENCES AND LETTERS.

13. Institute of France,.....	586,300
14. Imperial College of France,.....	180,000
15. Museum of Natural History, (Garden of Plants,).....	479,780
16. Astronomical establishments,.....	136,760
17. Imperial Library, (ordinary expenses, course in archæology,).....	304,800
18. do. (extra. exp. preparation of catalogue,).....	50,000
19. Public Libraries,.....	200,400
20. Imperial Academy of Medicine,.....	43,700
21. School of Records,.....	35,400
22. School of living oriental languages,.....	55,800
23. Subscriptions,.....	120,000
24. Relief and encouragement to savants and men of letters, ..	180,000
25. Learned Societies, subventions, &c.....	30,000
26. Scientific voyages and expeditions ; French school at Athens,	65,000
27. Publication of the <i>Documents inédits de l'histoire de</i> <i>France</i> ,.....	120,000
28. Public instruction in Algiers.....	181,200
29. Subscription to the City of Rennes for the construction of an edifice for the service of public instruction,.....	33,750
30. <i>Dépenses des exercices clos</i> ,.....	<i>Memoire.</i>

13,451,400 fr

TABLE V.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND CONDITION OF THE CLASSES FOR ADULTS, FOR YOUNG GIRLS,
AND FOR YOUNG APPRENTICES IN FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of classes for Adults,	6,434	
“ “ “ Young Girls,	160	
“ “ “ Apprentices,	36	
Number of Infant Schools,		
Public,	685	} 1,489
Private,	804	
Number of Scholars,		
In the classes for Adults,	95,064	} 108,432
“ “ Young Girls,	5,908	
“ Schools for Apprentices,	1,268	
“ Infant Schools,	96,192	
Number of communes in which there are Adult Classes, .	6,043	
Number of Adult Classes,		
for Men,	6,266	
“ Women,	168	
Number of persons who frequent them,		
for Men,	9,451	
“ Women, : : : : ,	4,613	
Number of Classes directed by		
Schoolmasters belonging to a Religious Society,	125	
Schoolmistresses, “ “ “ “	51	
Number of Adult Classes in which are taught		
Moral and Religious Instruction,	3,331	
Reading,	5,035	
Writing,	4,483	
Arithmetic,	4,456	
System of Weights and Measures,	3,857	
Linear Drawing,	271	
Vocal Music,	107	
Resources of these Classes,		
Sums furnished by the Communes,	136,836	} Franca.
“ “ “ Departments,	38,350	
“ “ “ State,	26,700	

TABLE VI.

SHOWING THE NUMBER AND COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF
FRANCE, IN 1843.

Number of Normal Schools thoroughly organized,	78
Number to which a garden is joined for the purpose of teaching the pupils the culture of trees,	52
Number of Professors in these schools,	495
“ “ including the Directors,	573
Number of hours devoted weekly to the different branches of education :	
	1st Year. 2d Year. 3d Year.
Moral and Religious Instruction	2½ 2½ 2½
Reading,	3½ 3 2
Writing,	4½ 4½ 4
Study of the French Language,	6 5½ 4½
History and Geography,	3½ 4½ 3½
Arithmetic,	5 3½ 3
Use of the Globes,	2 2½ 2
Elements of Practical Geometry,	4 3½ 3½
Elements of Physics and Natural History,	2½ 2½ 3½
“ Mechanics,	2 2½ 3
“ Surveying,	2 2½ 3
Linear Drawing,	3½ 4 4½
Methods of teaching,	1½ 1½ 2½
Vocal Music,	3½ 3½ 3½
Civil Law,	2 1½ 1½
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BUDGET OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION FOR 1856.

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 5. Superior Normal School,.....178,610
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SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

7. Subventions,800,000

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

8. General Expenses,..... 51,000
 9. Lyceums and Colleges,.....1,400,000
 10. Scholarships, (*bourses*,) and reduction of fees,.....710,950

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

11. Inspection of primary schools,.....723,000
 12. Expenses of chargeable to the general fund of the State,4,970,000

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13. Institute of France,.....586,300
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 19. Public Libraries,\$200,400
 20. Imperial Academy of Medicine,..... 43,700
 21. School of Records,..... 35,400
 22. School of living oriental languages,..... 55,800
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 24. Relief and encouragement to savants and men of letters,..180,000
 25. Learned Societies, subventions, &c..... 30,000
 26. Scientific voyages and expeditions ; French school at Athens, 65,000
 27. Publication of the *Documents inédits de l'histoire de France*,.....120,000
 28. Public instruction in Algiers.....184,200
 29. Subscription to the City of Rennes for the construction of an edifice for the service of public instruction,..... 33,750
 30. *Dépenses des exercices clos*,.....*Memoire.*

13,451,400 fr

FRANCE

II. EXPENSES CHARGED TO SPECIAL RESOURCES.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

31. Expenses chargeable to funds of the departments,.....	5,325,000
" " the special proceeds of primary	
Normal schools,.....	400,000
	<hr/>
	5,725,000

SUMMARY.

I.	Expenses chargeable to the general funds of the State, . . .	13,451,400
II.	“ “ to special resources,	5,725,000
		<hr/>
	TOTAL.	19,176,400

The above budget does not include the appropriations for the following departments in aid of public educational institutions which do not depend upon the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Ministry of Worship.—Diocesan Seminaries; Normal Ecclesiastical School (*des carmes*,) at Paris.

Ministry of the Interior.—Conservatorie of Arts and Trades; Conservatoire of Music and Declamation; Imperial School of the Fine Arts.

Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Public Works.—School of Roads and Bridges; School of Mines; School of Miners at St. Etienne; School of Master Miners at Alais; Schools of Agriculture; Farm Schools; Schools of Art and Trades at Châlons, Angers, and Aix; Central School of Arts and Manufactures, at Paris; Veterinary Schools at Alfort, Lyon, and Toulouse.

Ministry of War.—Polytechnic School ; Military School at St. Cyr ; Military School of Medicine and Pharmacy ; School of Artillery and Engineering, at Metz ; Military Prytaneum.

Ministry of the Marine.—Naval School at Brest; Marine Schools of Surgery at Rochefort and Toulon; Schools of Hydrographic; Lyceum of St. Denis; Primary Instruction in the colonies, except in Algiers.

Ministry of Finance.—School of Forestry at Nancy; Grand Chancellery of the Legion of Honor; Houses of Education at St. Denis, Ecouen and St. Germain.

SPECIAL REWARDS TO SCHOOL TEACHERS.—The *Moniteur* contains an Imperial Decree, by which 465 school teachers who distinguished themselves by their self-sacrifice and humanity, during the ravages of the cholera, receive testimonials of the governments approbation; six bear the title "Academy Officers;" 73 receive a silver medal; 82 a copper medal; and 294 honorary mention.

FRENCH ARABIC SCHOOLS IN AFRICA.

The *Moniteur* of March 26th, published a report upon the French-Arabic schools, which the government have maintained in Algiers for some years past, in the hope of having in time, native officials. It is proposed to establish at an early day an Arabic-French Lyceum, or College.

The following statistics are given in the report:

In 1848, there were 115 elementary schools for Europeans, attended by 3,858 boys, and 4,250 girls. This number has been greatly increased, so that there are now 178 boys schools; 119 girls schools; 67 primary schools, with 10,672 boys, and 9,896 girls in attendance upon them.

GUIZOT'S MINISTRY OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

NOTE.

The following tribute to M. Guizot for the wisdom with which the Law of Primary Instruction of 1833 was framed, and the prudence and energy with which its introduction was secured, is paid by Mr. Arnold, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, in a special Report on "*The Popular Education of France*" to the Commissioners on the State of Popular Education in England.

Such was the law of 1833, not more remarkable for the judgment with which it was framed than for the energy with which it was executed. As if he had foreseen the weak point of his law, the inadequacy of the local authorities to discharge the trust committed to their hands, M. Guizot multiplied his efforts to stimulate and to enlighten them. In successive circulars to prefects, to rectors, to directors of normal schools, to inspectors, he endeavored to procure the active coöperation of all his agents in the designs of the Government, and to inspire in all of them the zeal with which he himself was animated. On behalf of the elementary schools, he strove to awaken that spirit of local interest and independent activity which he and his friends have never ceased to invoke for their country, and the want of which has, since the Revolution, been the great want of France. He succeeded imperfectly in inspiring his countrymen with a faith in habits of local exertion; but he succeeded at last in founding the elementary schools of France, and in inspiring faith in his own zeal for them. In the chamber of the Frère Philippe or of the Père Étienne, as among the Protestant populations of Nismes and of Strasbourg; in the palaces of bishops and in the manses of pastors; in the villages of Brittany and in the villages of the Cevennes—everywhere I found M. Guizot's name held in honor for the justice and wisdom of his direction of popular education when it was in fashion, for his fidelity to it now that it is no longer talked of. Singular confidence inspired in quarters the most various upon the most delicate of questions! which insincere ability can never conciliate, which even sincere ability can not always conciliate; only ability united with that heartfelt devotion to a great cause, which friends of the cause instinctively recognize, and warm towards it because they share it.

The results of the law of 1833 were prodigious. The thirteen normal schools of 1830 had grown in 1838, to seventy-six; more than 2,500 students were, in the latter year, under training in them. In the four years from 1834 to 1838, 4,557 public schools, the property of the communes, had been added to the 10,316 which existed in 1834. In 1847, the number of elementary schools for boys had risen from 33,695, which it reached in 1834, to 43,514; the number of scholars attending them from 1,654,828 to 2,176,079. In 1849, the elementary schools were giving instruction to 3,530,135 children of the two sexes. In 1851, out of the 37,000 communes of France, 2,500 only were without schools; through the remainder there were distributed primary schools of all kinds, to the number of 61,481. The charge, borne by the communes in the support of their schools was nearly 300,000*l.* In 1834, the first year after the passing of the new law. In 1849, it had risen to nearly 400,000*l.* The charge borne by the departments was, in 1835, nearly 111,000*l.*; in 1847, it was more than 180,000*l.* The sum contributed by the state, only 2,000*l.* in 1816, 4,000*l.* in 1829, 40,000*l.* in 1830, had risen in 1847 to 96,000*l.* The great inspection of 1834 had been a special effort. But in 1835, primary inspectors, those "sinews of public instruction," were permanently established, one for each department, by royal ordinance. In 1847, two inspectors-general and 153 inspectors and sub-inspectors had been already appointed. An ordinance of June the 23rd, 1836, extended to girls' schools, so far as was possible, the provisions of the law of 1833. Normal Schools for the training of lay schoolmistresses were at the same time formed. In 1837, a similar ordinance regulated infant schools, which had attracted attention since 1827. Classes for adults were also formed, and in 1848, there were 6,877 in number, with 115,164 pupils. Popular instruction was not only founded, but in operation.

School Law of 1833 and Ministry of M. Guizot.

Public primary schools, or institutions established and conducted according to law, for the elementary instruction of such children as parents or guardians may be required or may choose to send to them for this purpose, did not get incorporated into the legislation and habits of France until after the law of the 28th of June, 1833, under M. Guizot's administration of the Ministry of Public Instruction. This eminent scholar and statesman, in the Memoirs which he prepared to illustrate the history of his life, has set forth the slow development of this branch of the public service, the family and government necessities in which universal primary instruction has in our day its origin and its justification, and the leading features of the system inaugurated by him, so clearly that we give the development of these schools from 1833 to 1848 in his words.

I FILLED the ministry of Public Instruction for four years, from October 11, 1832, to January, 1837. During that time I entered upon every question which belonged or applied to that department. I am anxious to retrace what I accomplished, what I commenced without carrying through, and what I intended to achieve. Throughout the same period I was also engaged in all the struggles of interior and external policy, in all the vicissitudes of the composition and destiny of the cabinet. I shall exempt from this battle of the events and passions of the day, such matters as relate only to Public Instruction.

There is a fact which has been too little regarded. Amongst us, and in our days, the ministry of Public Instruction is the most popular of all governmental departments, and that which the people look upon with the highest favor and expectation. A good symptom in our age, when men, it is said, are exclusively occupied with their actual and material interests. The ministry of Public Instruction has nothing whatever to do with the material and actual interests of the generation which possesses the world for the moment. It is consecrated to succeeding races—to their intelligence and destiny. Our age and our country, therefore, are not so indifferent as they are accused of being to moral order and to the future.

Family duties and feelings exercise at present an extensive sway. I say duties and feelings, not the family spirit or sympathy of class, such as it existed under our old society. Legal and political family ties are weakened; natural and moral bonds have increased in strength. Never did parents live so affectionately and intimately with their children; never were they so completely engaged with their instruction and prospects. Although profusely mingled with error and evil, the violent shock which, in this sense, Rousseau and his school have given to minds and manners, has not been profitless, and salutary traces still remain. Egoism, corruption, and worldly frivolity assuredly are not rare. The very foundations of the family tie have lately been and still are exposed to senseless and perverse attacks. Nevertheless, looking upon our social system in general, and on those millions of existences which pass noiselessly on, but really constitute France, the domestic virtues and affections predominate, and are more than ever exemplified in the constant and active solicitude of parents for the education of their children.

An idea connects itself with these sentiments, and gives them a new empire. The idea that personal merit is now the first controlling influence, as it is the primary condition of success in life, and that this quality is indispensable. We have witnessed, during three-fourths of a century, the incompetence and fragility of all the advantages derived from accident, birth, riches, or traditionary rank. We have seen, at the same time, in every stage and fluctuation of society, a crowd of men raise themselves and take high places, by the sole force of intelligence, character, knowledge and exertion. In conjunction with the sad and injurious impressions which this violent and perpetual confusion of places and persons excites in the mind, a great moral lesson presents itself—the conviction that man can vindicate his own value, and that his destiny essentially depends on individual worth. In spite of all that our manners retain of weakness and inconsistency, there is at present in French society a general and profound sentiment, acting powerfully in the bosoms of families, which gives to parents more judgment and foresight in the education of their children, and which they could not have acquired without these rude warnings of contemporary experience: judgment and foresight even more necessary in the classes already well treated by fortune, than in others less favored. A great geologist, M. Elie de Beaumont, has brought us into close acquaintance with the revolutions of our globe. The inequalities of its surface are formed by interior fermentation; volcanoes have produced mountains. Let not the classes which occupy the social eminences delude themselves. A corresponding fact is passing under their feet. Human society continues to ferment even in its lowest depths, and struggles to eject from its bosom new elevations. This extensive and hidden ebullition, this ardent and universal movement of ascent, forms the essential characteristic of all democratic associations; it is, in truth, democracy itself. In presence of this fact, what would become of the classes already endowed with social advantages—the long-descended, the rich, the great, and the favored of every description, if to the gifts of fortune they added not the claims of personal merit? If they did not by study, labor, acquirement, and energetic habits of mind and life, render themselves equal in every career to the immense competition they have to encounter, and which can only be overcome by grappling with it vigorously?

It is to this condition of our society, to an instinctive appreciation of its necessities, to the sentiment of ambitious or provident solicitude which reigns in families, that the ministry of Public Instruction owes its popularity. All parents interest themselves warmly in the abundance and healthfulness of the source from which their children are to be nourished.

By the side of this powerful domestic interest, a great public consideration also places itself. Necessary to families, the ministry of Public Instruction is not less important to the state.

The grand problem of modern society is the government of minds. It has frequently been said in the last century, and it is often repeated now,

that minds ought not to be fettered, that they should be left to their free operation, and that society has neither the right nor the necessity of interference. Experience has protested against this haughty and precipitate solution. It has shown what it was to suffer minds to be unchecked, and has roughly demonstrated that even in intellectual order, guides and bridles are necessary. The very men who have maintained, here and elsewhere, the principle of total unrestraint, have been the first to renounce it as soon as they experienced the burden of power. Never were minds more violently hunted down, never less open to self-instruction and spontaneous development; never have more systems been invented, or greater efforts been made to subjugate them, than under the rule of those parties who had demanded the abolition of all intermeddling in the domains of intellect.

But if, for the advantage of progress, as well as for good order in society, a certain government of minds is always necessary, the conditions and means of this government are neither at all times nor in all places the same. Within our own experience they have greatly changed.

Formerly, the church alone possessed the control of minds. She united, at once, moral influence and intellectual supremacy. She was charged equally to feed intelligence and to govern souls. Science was her domain as exclusively as faith. All this is over. Intelligence and science have become expanded and secularized. Laical students have entered in crowds into the field of the moral sciences, and have cultivated it with brilliancy. They have almost entirely appropriated mathematics and natural philosophy. The church has not wanted erudite ecclesiastics; but the learned world, professors and public, has become more secular than clerical. Science has ceased to dwell habitually under the same roof with faith; she has traversed the world. She has moreover become a practical force, fertile in daily application for the uses of all classes of society.

In becoming more laical, intelligence and science have aspired to greater liberty. This was the natural consequence of their power, popularity, and pride, which increased together. And the public has sustained them in their pretension, for it speedily discovered that its own liberty was intimately connected with theirs; and soon after, that liberty conferred on the masters of thought and science a just reward for the new powers they had placed at the disposal of society, and for the common benefits they had conferred on all.

Whether we receive them with congratulations or regret; whether we agree or differ upon their consequences; whether we blind or alarm ourselves as to their danger—here are certain and irrevocable facts. Intelligence and science will never again become essentially ecclesiastical; neither will they be satisfied without an extensive field of free exercise.

But precisely because they are now more laical, more powerful, and more free than formerly, intelligence and science could never remain beyond the government of society. When we say government, we do not necessarily imply positive and direct authority. Washington said,

"influence is not government;" and in the sense of political order he was right. Influence there would not suffice. Direct and promptly effective action is necessary. With intellectual order the case is different. Where minds are concerned, it is preëminently by influence that government should be exercised. Two facts, as I think, are here necessary: one, that the powers devoted to intellectual labor, the leaders of science and literature, should be drawn towards the government, frankly assembled around it, and induced to live in natural and habitual relations with constitutional authority; the other, that the government should not remain careless or ignorant of the moral development of succeeding generations, and that as they appear upon the scene, it should study to establish intimate ties between them and the state, in the bosom of which God has placed their existence. For the progress of intellectual order, it is the legitimate and necessary duty of civil government to promote great establishments for science, and great schools for public instruction, on regulated conditions, and supported by the highest public authority.

By what means can we at present, in France, secure this action of the government, and satisfy a vital requirement of society? Formerly, France possessed, in great number, special establishments, supported by themselves; universities, and learned or scholastic corporations, which, without depending on the state, were, however, connected with it by ties more or less intimate or apparent; sometimes demanding its support, and at others, not able entirely to withdraw from its intervention; and thus conferring on the civil power an actual although an indirect and limited influence on the intellectual life and education of society. The University of Paris, the Sorbonne, the Benedictines, the Oratorians, the Lazarists, the Jesuits, and many other corporate bodies and schools scattered through the provinces, were assuredly not branches of public administration, and were often the causes of serious embarrassment. Before they disappeared in the revolutionary tempest, several of these establishments had fallen into abuse or insignificance, which destroyed their moral credit and obliterated their services. But for ages they had seconded the intellectual development of French society, and had coöperated profitably in its government. Being nearly all old proprietaries, attached to their traditions, and founded with a religious object, they had instincts of order and authority as well as of independence. In the aggregate, they constituted a mode of action by the state on the intellectual life and education of the people: a confused and incoherent mode, which had its difficulties and vices, but was not deficient either in dignity or efficacy.

From 1789 to 1800, three celebrated bodies, true sovereigns of their time, the Constituent Assembly, the Legislative Assembly, and the National Convention, undertook to bestow on France a grand system of public instruction. Three persons of eminent and very opposite abilities, M. de Talleyrand, M. de Condorcet, and M. Daunou, were successively commissioned to draw up a report and present a plan on this important question, with which the enlightened spirits engaged in revolutionary struggles delighted to occupy themselves, as if to find in this field of

speculation and philosophic hope, some relief from the violence of the times. The reports of these three brilliant men, representing the society, the politics, and the science of their age, are remarkable works, both in their common character and in their different and distinctive features. In all three, man alone reigns supreme in this world, and the Revolution of 1789 is the date of his accession to the throne. He ascends confident in his omnipotence, regulates human society as a master, for the future as well as for the present, and feels assured of fashioning it according to his own will. In the report to which M. de Talleyrand has affixed his name, the pride of mind predominates, combined with benevolent ardor, but without passion or hesitating doubt. Public instruction is there called "*a power* which embraces every thing, from the games of infancy to the most imposing fêtes of the nation; every thing calls for a *creation* in this branch; its essential characteristic ought to be *universality*, whether in persons or things; the state must govern theological studies as well as all others; evangelical morality is the noblest present which the Divinity has bestowed on man; the French nation does honor to itself in rendering this homage." *The Institute*, the successor of all the academies, is proposed as the supreme school, the pinnacle of public education; it is to be at once a learned and instructing body, and the administrative organ of all other scientific and literary establishments.

Between the report of M. de Talleyrand to the Constituent Assembly and that of M. de Condorcet to the Legislative Assembly, the filiation is visible. They have traveled along the same declivity, but the space included is immense. With the latter, philosophical ambition has given way to revolutionary excitement. A special and exclusive feeling of policy governs the work; equality is its principle and sovereign end. "The order of nature," says Condorcet, "includes no distinctions in society beyond those of education and wealth. To establish amongst citizens an equality in fact, and to realize the equality confirmed by law, ought to be the primary object of national instruction. In every degree, and in all public establishments, the teaching should be entirely gratuitous; instruction without charge should be the first consideration in respect of social equality." The report and plan of Condorcet are entirely devoted to this tyrannical notion of equality, which penetrates even to the heart of the great national association of science and art destined to crown the edifice. "No member can belong to two classes at the same time; this is injurious to equality."

In the report of M. Daunou to the National Convention, liberty assumes a larger share than equality. He reproaches his predecessors with not having sufficiently acknowledged and secured its rights. In the plan of M. de Talleyrand, he found "too much respect for old forms, too many bonds and impediments." "Condorcet," he said, "proposed to institute in some degree an academic church." M. Daunou desires no public organization of scientific or literary instruction. The state, according to him, should only interfere with elementary and professional training. Beyond that, "liberty of education, liberty of private seminaries, liberty

of method." But, with this extended notion of freedom in public instruction, M. Daunou has also his fixed idea and mania. The passion of republicanism is with him what that of equality is with M. de Condorcet. "There is no genius," says he, "except in a republican soul. A system of public instruction can only be carried on in community with a republican government." Under the empire of such a constitution, "the most extensive means of education," he continues, "are in the establishment of national festivals;" and he devotes an entire section of his proposed bill to the enumeration and arrangement of these annual ceremonies, to the number of seven; festivals in honor of the republic, of youth, of marriage, of gratitude, of agriculture, of liberty, and of old age.

In the midst of the revolutionary tempest, all these plans and devices, alternately liberal, dangerous, or puerile, remained without results. Universal and gratuitous elementary education was decreed, but there were neither seminaries nor teachers. A system of secondary instruction was attempted, under the title of *central schools*, which, notwithstanding ingenious and promising appearances, responded neither to the traditions of teaching, the natural laws of intellectual development in man, nor the moral requirements of education. In high and special instruction, some important and celebrated associations sprang up. The Institute was founded. The mathematical and physical sciences lavished on society their services and their glory, but no great and effective combination of public teaching replaced the departed establishments. Much had been promised and expected, but nothing was done. Chimeras hovered over ruins.

The Consular government proved itself more in earnest and effective. The law of the first of May, 1802, futile as regarded elementary teaching, incomplete and hypothetical on the higher branches, reëstablished, under the name and fosterage of Lyceums, a well-based system of secondary education, comprising sound principles, and securities for social influence and duration. The work, however, was deficient in originality and grandeur. Public instruction was considered simply as an administrative duty, and, under that title, was included, with all its components, in the numerous and opposite functions of the Minister of the Interior. Neither its proper rank, nor the suitable mode of its government, were defined. It fell under the control of that official mechanism which knows how to regulate and direct material business, but with which the arrangements of moral order can not amalgamate.

The Emperor Napoleon did not deceive himself on this point. Warned by those lofty and clear instincts which revealed to him the true nature of things, and the essential attributes of power, he recognized, as soon as he gave his unbiased reflection to the subject, that public instruction could neither be yielded up entirely to private industry, nor regulated by ordinary administration, as were the domains, finances, or highways of the state. He comprehended that to give the parties intrusted with education, respect, dignity, confidence in themselves, and a spirit of devotedness to their calling, in order that these men, unassuming and weak,

should feel satisfied and proud in their obscure positions, it was necessary that they should be associated and linked as it were together, so as to form a body, which might reflect on them its strength and importance. The remembrance of the old religious and scholastic corporations then recurred to him. But while regarding with willing admiration what had long existed with *éclat*, he discriminated their evil qualities, which would be more injurious now than formerly. The religious institutions were too much estranged from the government of the state, and from society itself. Through celibacy, the absence of all individual property, and many other causes, they lived almost entirely without generous interests, habits, or sentiments. Government exercised upon them an indirect, sparing, and disputed influence. Napoleon felt that, in the present day, the educational department should be laical, social, connected with family interests and property, and intimately united, save only in their special mission, with civil order and the mass of their fellow-citizens. He saw also that this body should hold closely to the state government, receive its powers from that source, and exercise them under its general control. Napoleon created the University, adapting, with admirable discernment and freedom of spirit, the maternal idea of the old educational corporations to the new state of society.

The best works can not escape the contagion of the vices of their authors. The University was founded on the principle that education belongs to the State. The State was the Emperor. The Emperor willed, and was in possession of uncontrolled authority. The University, from its birth, embodied a system of absolute power. Beyond the institution, neither family rights, nor those of the church, nor of private industry, were acknowledged or respected. Even in the very bosom of the establishment, there were no real guarantees for the position, dignity, and just independence of persons. If in France the Emperor was the State, in the University the head master was the Emperor. I employ expressions too absolute: the government of the University, in fact, has always sought to modify opposing rights. But whatever may be the prudence or inconsistency of men, principles bear their fruit. According to the principles of the University system, as regarded public instruction, there was no liberty for the citizens, and no responsibility of the authorities to the country.

Thus, when the Charter established free legislation in France; when the liberty of the citizens, and the responsibility of power, became the common law and practice of the land, the embarrassment of the University and of the government, in respect to it, became extreme. Its maxims, rules and traditions no longer accorded with the general institutions. In the name of religion, of families, of liberty, and of publicity, claims were raised around and against the University which it was unable to repel without coming into collision with the constitutional system, or to admit without falsifying or mutilating itself. The power which governed it, either under the name of Head Master, Royal Council, or President, was neither a minister, nor sufficiently small and dependent to be merely

the subordinate of a minister. No minister would become responsible for it, and it could not carry in itself, either with the Chambers or the public, the weight of responsibility. During six years, from 1815 to 1821, men of a superior cast, M. Royer-Collard, M. Cuvier, M. Sylvester de Sacy, and M. Lainé, employed their talents and influence in this anomalous situation. They gained time ; they saved the life of the University, but without solving the question of its constitutional existence. It was a piece, which, in the new machine of government, found neither its place nor its game.

Fortune has its combinations which seem to mock human foresight. It was under a ministry, looked upon, not without reason, as hostile to the University, and at the moment when it most dreaded an attack, that it emerged from its perplexing situation, and assumed its rank in the state. M. de Villèle had appointed the Abbé Frayssinous Head Master. Public instructions was placed under the direction of a bishop. To satisfy the clergy, and to bring them at the same time under his influence, M. de Villèle required something more. He associated the Church in the government of the State. He made the Bishop of Hermopolis minister of ecclesiastical affairs, giving him at the same time the title and functions, not only of Head Master of the University, but also of Minister of Public Instruction. Public Instruction thus became officially included amongst the great public offices, and the University entered, in the train of the Church, into all the frame-work and conditions of the constitutional system.

Within four years after, it made another step in advance. Everywhere dreaded and violently opposed, ecclesiastical preponderance was particularly suspected in the matter of public instruction. The liberal movement which, in 1827, displaced M. de Villèle and brought the Martignoc Cabinet into office, had also its effect upon the University. The royal ordinance of the 4th of January, 1828, in naming the new ministers, declared, "that for the future, public instruction should no longer form a part of the ministry of ecclesiastical affairs ; and on the 10th of February following, it became, in the State councils, a special and independent department, confided to M. de Vatimesnil.

This rational and prudent organization was then only ephemeral. Under M. de Polignac, party passions resumed their ascendancy. The University fell back into the hands of the Church. There was again but one minister of ecclesiastical affairs and of public instruction. The Revolution of 1830 at first allowed this state of things to continue ; only by an ill-judged concession to the vanity of the laical spirit, and as if to mark its victory, it changed words and displaced ranks. The University took precedence over the Church, by the appointment of a Minister of Public Instruction and Worship. It was under this title and with these functions, that the Duke de Broglie, M. Mérilhou, M. Barthe, the Count de Montalivet, and M. Girod de L'Ain, filled the department until the formation of the cabinet of the 11th of October, 1832.

In accepting the Ministry of Public Instruction, I was the first to

require that it should be separated from that of Worship. As a Protestant, it was neither fitting that the latter should be offered to me, or that I should undertake it. I venture to think that I should have given the Catholic church no reason to complain; that I should perhaps have better understood and defended it than many of its disciples; but there are appearances which ought never to be encountered. The administration of Public Worship was then blended with the duties of the Minister of Justice. It was, in my opinion, an error not to form it into a distinct department. Such an honor was due to the importance and dignity of religious interests. In these, our days, and after so many victories, the laical power could not too much conciliate the susceptible pride of the clergy and its leaders. It is, besides, an ill-arranged combination to place the relations of the Church with the State in the hands of its rivals or official overseers. To display mistrust is to inspire it, and the best mode of living on good terms with the Church is to acknowledge frankly its importance, and to yield full admission to its place and purpose.

Reduced entirely to Public Instruction, the duties of the department I was about to occupy were, in this light, very incomplete. The University was its cradle, from which it had not yet issued. The head master of the University had assumed the title of Minister of Public Instruction in general, but without becoming so in effect. I demanded for this ministry its natural privileges and limits. On the one hand, all the great educational institutions founded in no connection with the University, the College of France, the Museum of Natural History, the School of Charters, and the schools specially applied to Oriental languages and archæology; and on the other, the establishments dedicated, not to instruction, but to the glory and advancement of science and letters,—the Institute, the various learned societies, the libraries, and all other encouragements to literature, were, from that time, placed under the authority of the minister of Public Instruction. There are still some gaps in the privileges, which of right belong to this department. Amongst others, it has not in the direction of the Fine Arts the influence that it ought to exercise. Art and literature are naturally and necessarily linked together. It is only by this intimate and habitual intercourse that they can be assured of maintaining their suitable and elevated character,—the worship of the beautiful, and its manifestation in the eyes of men. If Leonardo da Vinci and Michael Angelo had not been scholars, passing their lives in the learned world of their age, their influence, and even their genius, could never have displayed themselves with such pure and powerful effect. Placed beyond the sphere of letters, and within the ordinary domain of administration, the arts incur a serious risk of falling under the exclusive yoke of material utility, or of the narrow caprices of the public. The department of Public Instruction has still, in this particular, and for the interest of the arts themselves, an important conquest to achieve. In a general sense, however, it received, at the time of my appointment, its legitimate extent and rational organization. From 1824 to 1830, it had been little more than an expedient. In 1832, it became,

in the aggregate of our institutions, a piece of complete and regular machinery, capable of rendering to society and power, both in moral and intellectual order, the services with which, now more than ever, they can not afford to dispense.

In assuming the ministry of Public Instruction, I took a special interest in the organization of elementary schools. Because, I have opposed democratic theories, and resisted popular passions, it has been often said that I had no love for the people, no sympathy for their miseries, instincts, necessities, and desires. In public, as in private life, there are more classes of affections than one. If what is called love for the people, means to participate in all their impressions, to study their tastes rather than their interests, to be on all occasions ready to think, feel, and act with them,—I admit at once this forms no part of my disposition. I love the people with a profound, but at the same time independent and somewhat anxious attachment. I wish to serve them, but am no more disposed to become their slave than to use them for any advantage but their own. I respect while I love them, and this very respect restrains me from deceiving them, or from aiding them to deceive themselves. Sovereignty is yielded up to them; complete happiness is promised; they are told that they have a right to all the powers of society, and all the enjoyments of life. I have believed that they had both the right and necessity of becoming capable and worthy of being free; that is to say, of exercising in their public and private allotment the share of influence which the laws of God permit to man in human life and society. For this reason, while sympathizing deeply with the physical privations of the people, I have been more preëminently moved and engrossed by their moral wants; holding it for certain that, in proportion as the latter are ameliorated, they will struggle the more effectually against the former; and that to improve the condition of men we must first purify, strengthen, and enlighten their minds.

It is to the strong conviction of this truth that the importance universally attached to popular teaching in the present day is to be ascribed. Other instincts, less pure and salutary, are mixed up with it: pride, a presumptuous confidence in the merit and power of intelligence alone, immeasurable ambition, and the passion of a pretended equality. But in spite of this confusion in the sentiments by which it is recommended, in spite of its intrinsic difficulties, and of the uneasiness it still excites, popular teaching is not the less, in the age in which we live, and both on principles of right and fact, an act of justice towards the people, and a necessary requisition of society. During his mission in Germany, one of those men who have the most profoundly studied this great question, M. Eugène Rendu, inquired of a learned and respectable prelate, the Cardinal de Diepenbrock, Prince Bishop of Breslau, "whether, according to his idea, the diffusion of education amongst the masses would produce any danger to society." "Never," replied the Cardinal, "if religious feeling assigns to education its proper end and governs its course. Besides which, the question is no longer in debate; it is

distinctly laid down. When the car is on the rails, what remains? To guide it."

In 1832, there was something more for us to do than merely to guide the car. It was necessary to give it effective and durable motion. When we examine closely what has taken place between 1789 and 1832, in regard to elementary education, we are equally impressed with the power of the idea and the futility of the efforts made to realize it. It engages the attention of all who govern, or aspire to govern France. When eclipsed, for a moment, it is only under the pressure of more urgent prepossessions, and speedily reappears. It finds its way even to the hearts of the parties and authorities who seem to fear it most. Between 1792 and 1795, the National Convention issued seven decrees for the establishment of preparatory schools, prescribing their nature and regulation; mere words, barren of produce, though sincerely meant. The Empire said and thought little of rudiments; secondary instruction was the favorite object of its solicitude and skillful superintendence. Nevertheless, we encounter a man in the Imperial councils, unassuming in rank, but of a mind and reputation sufficiently exalted to draw public attention to his labors and ideas, whatever might be their object. M. Cuvier traveled through Holland, Germany, and Italy, and on his return, described the public educational establishments he had visited, particularly the elementary schools of Holland, the sound practical organization of which had strongly impressed him. A lively interest was immediately excited in favor of these schools, which led to much reflection, conversation, and regretful comparisons. The Empire fell; the Restoration succeeded; the great political contests recommenced: but in the midst of their clamor, the government of public instruction passed into the hands of men who sincerely desired the good of the people without undue adulation. M. Royer-Collard became director; M. Cuvier exercised an important influence. They applied themselves to the increase, improvement, and effective superintendence of elementary schools. The king issued decrees commanding and regulating the coöperation of local authorities and sympathies. The Council of Public Instruction carried on an unremitting correspondence to insure the execution of these ordinances. New methods were announced in Europe with considerable stir; mutual teaching and simultaneous teaching—the systems of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster. Some minds were excited to enthusiasm, others to uneasiness. Without taking any decided part, either in adoption or denial, the Council received, encouraged, and superintended all.

Political power changed hands, passing over to the party that distrusted this liberal impulse; but while they humored the suspicions, and made fatal concessions to the demands of their adherents, the intelligent leaders of this party had no desire to be looked upon as enemies to national education. They felt that a force was therein comprised which would not suffer itself to be strangled, and endeavored, by concession, to turn it to their own advantage. Between 1821 and 1826, eight royal decrees, countersigned by M. Corbière, minister of the Interior, author-

ized, in fourteen departments, religious associations, honestly devoted to elementary instruction, and thus established, in point of fact, a certain number of new schools. The Brethren of Christian Instruction, founded in Brittany by the Abbé J. M. de la Mennais; the Brethren of Christian Doctrine of Strasbourg, Nancy, and Valence; the Brethren of St. Joseph, in the department of the Somme; the Brethren of Christian Instruction of the Holy Spirit, in five departments of the west, all date from and reflect honor on this period. Another political shock carried back the government of France into other ranks. The Martignac ministry replaced the Villèle cabinet. One of the first cares of the new minister of Public Instruction, M. de Vatimesnil, was not only to confer additional encouragement on the elementary schools, but to restore to their administration the decrees called forth by M. Cuvier in 1816 and 1820. The fatal crisis of the Restoration approached; its evil genius prevailed in its general politics. Called in November, 1829, to the cabinet of the Prince de Polignac, as minister of Public Instruction, M. Guernon de Ranville proposed, nevertheless, excellent measures for the extension of elementary schools, and the introduction of a superior class of teachers. He was met by doubts, objections, and timid but repeated resistance. He persisted, however, and at his request, the king, Charles X., signed a decree, remarkable not only for its practical conditions, but for the official expression of the ideas and sentiments by which they were accompanied. It can not be said that from 1814 to 1830, elementary instruction suffered nothing from political attacks, but still it did not completely perish in the dangerous contact. Whether from equity or prudence, the very powers that suspected its intentions felt called upon to view it with a kindly eye, and to second its progress.

The government of 1830 was bound to be, and proved itself, from its origin, highly favorable to elementary instruction. M. Barthe, under the ministry of M. Laffitte, and M. de Montalivet, under that of M. Casimir Périer, hastened to bring forward, one in the Chamber of Peers, the other in the Chamber of Deputies, bills to promote the rapid increase of primary schools, bestowing on them securities for the future, and infusing into this first stage of instruction the liberty promised by the charter. The government and the chambers vied with each other in the promotion of this object. At the moment when these bills were introduced, two spontaneous propositions emanated from the Chamber of Deputies, conceived in principles differing in some degree, but inspired by the same spirit and leading to a uniform design. M. Daunou drew up a report on one of the bills, distinguished by profoundly liberal feeling, a language skillfully measured, and a visible dislike, though at the same time discreetly restrained, for the Imperial University. But none of these bills were subjected even to debate. The movement was stamped, the obstacles swept away, the public impatient to see elementary education finally established. When the cabinet of the 11th of October, 1832, assumed office, the work was on all sides demanded, and solemnly promised, but scarcely yet in operation.

I had around me in the Royal Council of Public Instruction all the lights and supports I could possibly desire for its full accomplishment. Invested in letters, in science, and in the world's opinion, with that authority so liberally conceded, which superior talent and long experience confer, the members of this Council were, moreover, my literary associates and friends. We lived in close and mutual intimacy. Whatever might be the difference of our studies and labors, we had all, on the subject of national education, the same ideas and desires. M. Villemain and M. Cousin, M. Poisson and M. Thénard, M. Guéneau de Mussy and M. Rendu, engaged with as much interest as myself in the measure we were preparing together. M. Cousin, during his travels in Germany in 1831, and in the able report published on his return, had studied and carefully laid down all the incidental questions. I doubt if they were ever more seriously debated than in our private council before the introduction of the bill.

The first point, and one which, not only in my estimation, but in that of many sound thinkers, still remains undecided, was, whether the elementary instruction of all children should be an absolute obligation imposed by the law on their parents, and supported by specific penalties in case of neglect, as adopted in Prussia and in the greater portion of the German States. I have nothing to say in respect to the countries where this rule has been long established, and acknowledged by national sentiment. There it has certainly produced beneficial results. But I must observe that it is almost exclusively confined to nations hitherto exacting little on the question of liberty, and that it has originated with those with whom, through the Reformation of the sixteenth century, the civil power is also in matters of religion, or touching upon religious interests, the sovereign authority. The proud susceptibility of free peoples, and the strong mutual independence of temporal and spiritual power, would accommodate themselves badly to this coercive action of the state on the domestic economy of families: where not sanctioned by tradition, the laws would fail to introduce it, for either they would be confined to an empty command, or to compel obedience they would have recourse to proscriptions and inquisitorial searches, hateful to attempt, and almost impossible to execute, especially in a great country. The National Convention tried, or rather decreed this, in 1793, and amongst all its acts of tyranny, this, at least, remained without effect.

Popular instruction is at present, in England, whether on the part of national and municipal authorities, or of simple citizens, the object of persevering zeal and exertion. No one proposes to enforce the obligation on parents by law. The system prospers in the United States of America, where local governments and private societies make great sacrifices to increase and improve the schools; but no efforts are attempted to intrude into the bosoms of families to recruit the scholars by compulsion. It forms a characteristic and redounds to the honor of a free people, that they are at the same time confiding and patient; that they rely on the empire of enlightened reason and well-understood interests, and know

how to wait their results. I care little for regulations that bear the impress of the convent or the barrack room. I therefore decidedly expunged constraint from my bill on elementary education, and none of my fellow-laborers insisted on its being retained, not even those who regretted the omission.

Next to the question of compulsory elementary education, came that of free primary instruction. Here, indeed, there could be no doubt. The Charter had promised liberty on this point, and it was not in regard to the first principles of instruction that this promise could give rise to opposite interpretations or lengthened disputes. No one thought of demanding that elementary education should be entirely committed to private industry, evidently incapable of furnishing the necessary supply, and little tempted to undertake it. The labor is immense, and without brilliant perspectives. The interference of the state here becomes indispensable. A free competition between the government and private individuals, private and public schools opened side by side, and under the same regulations, comprised all that the most exacting liberals required, and produced no opposition from the stanchest supporters of power.

A third question gave rise to more discussion. In the public schools, should elementary instruction be absolutely gratuitous, and supplied by the state to all children of the soil? This was the dream of generous spirits. Under the constitution of 1791, the Constituent Assembly had decreed that "a system of public instruction should be created and organized, common to every citizen, and gratuitous with regard to those branches of education indispensable to all men." The National Convention, while maintaining this principle, fixed the salaries of the tutors at a *minimum* of 1,200 francs. Experience has proved the vanity of these promises, as irrational as they were impracticable. The state is bound to offer elementary instruction to all families, and to give it to those who have not the means of paying for it; and thus it does more for the moral life of the people than it can effect for their material condition. This I consider the true principle of the question, and this I adopted in my bill.

These general and in some degree preliminary points being disposed of, there remained others of a more special character, the solution of which formed the text and scope of the bill. What were to be the objects and limits of elementary instruction? How were the public institutions to be formed and recruited? What authorities were to be charged with the superintendence of the elementary schools? What should be the means and securities for the effective execution of the act?

Amongst the feelings which may animate a nation, there is one, the absence of which would be much to be deplored if it existed not, but which we should take care neither to flatter nor excite where we find it in exercise—the sentiment of ambition. I honor aspiring spirits. Much is to be expected from them, provided they can not easily attempt all they desire to accomplish. And as, in our days, of all ambitions the most ardent if not the most apparent, especially amongst the industrial

classes, is the ambition of intelligence, from which they look for the gratifications of self-love and the means of fortune—it is that, above all others, the development of which, while we treat it with indulgence, we should watch over and direct with unceasing care. I know nothing at present more injurious to society, or more hurtful to the people themselves, than the small amount of ill-directed popular erudition, and the vague, incoherent, and false, although at the same time active and powerful ideas with which it fills their heads.

To contend with this danger, I distinguished in my proposed bill two degrees of primary education. The one elementary and universally required in the most remote rural districts, and for the humblest of social conditions; the other more elevated, and destined for the working population, who in towns and cities have to deal with the necessities and tastes of civilization more complicated, wealthy, and exacting. I confined elementary instruction strictly within the simplest and most extensively practiced branches of knowledge. To the primary instruction of a higher order, I assigned greater scope and variety, and while pre-arranging its principal objects, the bill added, “that it might receive the development which should be considered suitable, according to the wants and resources of particular localities.” I thus secured the most extended advances to primary instruction where they would be most useful and natural, without introducing them in quarters where their inutility would be perhaps their least defect. The Chamber of Deputies required that the prospect of a variable and indefinite extension should be left open to primary elementary instruction as well as to primary superior instruction. I did not feel myself bound to contend obstinately against this amendment, which met with almost general approbation; but it indicated a very slight conception of the end proposed in the bill by distinguishing the two degrees of primary education. It is precisely on account of its universal necessity that primary elementary instruction ought to be extremely simple and nearly always uniform. It was enough for social distinctions and the spirit of ambition in popular teaching, to open schools in the same class of a superior order. A disposition to extend, from a mere idea rather than from absolute need, the first principles of instruction, is unworthy of legal encouragement. The object of the laws is to provide what is necessary, not to step in advance of what may become possible; their mission is to regulate the elements of society, not to excite them indiscriminately.

The education of the teachers themselves is evidently a most important point in a law for popular instruction. To meet this, I adopted, without hesitation, the system of primary normal schools commenced in France in 1810, and which already, in 1833, numbered forty-seven establishments of this nature, created by the voluntary efforts of the departments or towns, and encouraged by the government. I formed them into a general and compulsory institution. In the actual state, and with the essentially laical character of our present society, this was the only method of securing at all times a sufficient number of masters for ele-

mentary instruction, properly trained to their required duties. It furnishes, moreover, an intellectual career to those classes of the population who have little before them on their entry into life beyond employments of physical labor, and introduces a moral influence amongst large communities, over whom, in the present day, power seldom acts except by tax-gatherers, commissaries of police, and gend'armes. Undoubtedly the education of the tutors in the normal schools in which they are trained, and their influence when they are thus trained, may be defective and injurious; there is no institution, however good in itself, which, ill-directed, may not turn to evil, and which, even under sound regulation, is exempt from inconvenience and danger. But this is no more than the common condition of all human undertakings; and not one would ever be accomplished if we did not resign ourselves to the acceptance of its faults, and to the necessity of unremitting watchfulness lest the tares should overrun the field and choke the grain.

While converting these elementary normal schools into a public and legalized institution, I was far from seeking to destroy or even to weaken the other nurseries of teachers supplied by religious associations dedicated to popular education. On the contrary, I desired also that the latter should extensively develop themselves, and that a wholesome competition should be established between them and the laical seminaries. I even wished to go a step beyond, and to confer on the religious communities so employed a special mark of confidence and respect. In the greater part of the royal ordinances issued between 1821 and 1826, for the establishment of associations of this nature, and more particularly for that of the Congregation for the advancement of Christian Knowledge, founded by the Abbé de la Mennais in the departments of Brittany; for another under the same denomination at Valence, and for the Brethren of St. Joseph, in the department of the Somme, it was provided that "the certificate of capability required from all elementary teachers should be delivered to every brother of these various congregations, on sight of the particular letter of obedience transmitted to him by the superior-general of the establishment to which he belonged." It appeared to me that in this release from a fresh examination accorded to the members of religious societies, formally acknowledged and authorized by the state as popular teachers, there was nothing beyond what was perfectly just and consistent, and I would readily have inserted it in my bill; but it would have been assuredly rejected by the public of that day as well as by the Chambers. The debate that sprang up when we went into an examination of the authorities to be intrusted with the superintendence of the elementary schools, clearly indicated the prevailing spirit.

The state and the church, on the question of popular instruction, are the only effective authorities. This is not a conjecture founded on general considerations; it is a fact historically demonstrated. The only countries and times in which public education has really prospered have been those where the church or state, or both in conjunction, have considered its advancement their business and duty. Holland and Germany,

whether Catholic or Protestant, and the United States of America, may be readily cited as evidences. The accomplishment of a similar work requires the ascendancy of general and permanent power, such as that of the state and its enactments; or of another moral authority ever present and equally enduring—the church and its militia.

But while the action of the church and the state is indispensable for the diffusion and solid establishment of public education, it becomes equally important, to render such education really good and socially profitable, that this action should be profoundly religious. I do not mean that religious instruction should merely take its place there, and outward practices be observed. A nation is not religiously educated on such limited and mechanical conditions. Popular education ought to be given and received in the bosom of a religious atmosphere, in order that corresponding impressions and habits may penetrate from every side. Religion is not a study or an exercise to which a particular place or hour can be assigned. It is a faith, a law which ought to make itself felt everywhere and at all times; and on no other condition can it exercise the full extent of its salutary influence on the minds and actions of men.

Thus, in elementary schools, the sentiment of religion ought to be habitually present. If the priest mistrusts or separates from the tutor, or if the tutor looks upon himself as the independent rival, not the faithful auxiliary of the priest, the moral value of the school is lost, and it is on the verge of becoming a danger.

When I presented my bill, and even before experience had imparted to my mind its valuable light, I felt thoroughly convinced of these truths. They had regulated my labors; although from an instinctive estimate of public prejudices, I adopted and applied them with circumspection. It was upon the preponderating and combined action of church and state that I relied for the establishment of elementary instruction. Now, the prevailing fact I encountered in the Chamber of Deputies and in the country at large, was precisely a sentiment of suspicion and almost of hostility against both. In the schools they dreaded above all things the influence of the priests and of the central power. The principal object of solicitude was to protect beforehand, and by legal enactment, the free action of the municipal authorities, and the total independence of the teachers in reference to the clergy. The opposition openly advocated that system, and the conservative party, too often governed in their inmost feelings and almost unconsciously by the very ideas they dread, combatted it without energy. I had proposed that the curate or pastor should by right be a member of the committee appointed in every township to superintend the school, and that the minister of Public Instruction should hold the exclusive appointment of the tutors. In the Chamber of Deputies, both these provisions were thrown out in the first debate, and it required the vote of the Chamber of Peers and my own perseverance in a second discussion to secure their retention in the act. There seemed to be considerable uneasiness as to the spirit that might possess the teachers. Much was said on the necessity of placing them under

effectual control, and great efforts were made to weaken or remove altogether from the schools the interference of church or state; in fact, to take away the only authorities capable of rooting out the pernicious seeds which the age had planted there with overflowing hands.

Notwithstanding these combats and mistaken objections, I had no right, if I speak candidly, to complain in this particular instance, either of the Chambers or the public. The bill on elementary education was received, discussed, and carried favorably, without material alteration. There remained only the great trial under which all preceding laws on this question had given way. How was it to be carried out?

It required two distinct modes of proceeding—administrative and moral measures. It was necessary that the provisions of the act for the creation, maintenance, and superintendence of the schools, and for the condition of the tutors, should become substantial and permanent facts. It was equally essential that the teachers themselves should be fully imbued with the understanding and spirit of the law of which they were to become the final and true executors.

With regard to administrative measures, the law had foreseen and provided the most essential. Not confining itself to ordaining in every township throughout the kingdom the establishment of elementary schools; whether primary or superior, it had decreed that a suitable residence should in all places be provided for the teachers; and that when the ordinary revenues of the district might be found insufficient, the necessary provision should be levied by two special and compulsory taxes—one to be voted by the municipal councils, and the other by the general councils of the department; or, in default of these votes, by a royal decree. If even these local imposts should prove inadequate, the minister of Public Instruction was empowered to make up the deficiency by a grant drawn from the credit annually carried to the account of elementary education in the state budget. The permanent existence of the schools and the means of supplying their natural wants were thus secured, independently of the intelligence and zeal of the populations for whose benefit they were instituted, while at the same time the central power could never find itself disarmed in presence of their evil designs or apathy.

An obstacle of considerable weight opposed itself to the effectual and regular execution of these arrangements. They required the coöperation of the general government of the state, represented in the several localities by the prefects and their subordinates; and also of the special superintendents of public education, embodied in the rectors and functionaries of the University. Every one knows how difficult it is to unite together for one common object a double series of public agents, exercising opposite duties and acting under different heads. After coming to an understanding on these points with M. Thiers, at that time minister of the Interior, I addressed detailed instructions to the prefects and rectors, explaining to all their particular duties in the execution of the new law, and the conditions under which they were to act in concert. I went a step beyond this. At my instance it was decided in a cabinet council, that

elementary instruction should constitute annually, in each department, the object of a special budget, to be included in the general estimate of supply for that department; and which should also, every year, be separated from it, and forwarded to the minister of Public Instruction for his examination, as the general budget was submitted to the secretary of the minister of the Interior.

I hereby accomplished a double end. On the one hand, I placed, in every locality, primary instruction, its necessities, resources, and expenditure, apart and in bold relief; thus constituting it a real and permanent local institution, invested with rights, and the object of special superintendence. On the other hand, while securing for elementary education the coöperation of the general government, I connected it closely with the duties of the minister of Public Instruction, as the first step in the comprehensive scheme which the genius of the Emperor Napoleon had founded under the title of *University of France*, the grandeur and harmony of which I ardently desired to maintain by adapting it to a free system, and to the general principles of state government.

I could never have carried out this somewhat complicated design, had I not found in M. Thiers that enlargement of mind and devotion to the public good which silence the suspicious rivalries of office, and the influence of narrow personal jealousies. He acceded frankly to the trifling alterations I proposed in the usual routine of the ministry of the Interior, and facilitated this common action in our respective departments, which the new law on elementary education required for its prompt and complete success.

Eight days after the formation of the cabinet, as soon as I began to occupy myself with this bill, and to prepare it for the Royal Council, as also for its future agents, I ordered a periodical list to be drawn up under the title of *General Manual of Primary Instruction*, with the view of placing at once under the eyes of the teachers, administrators, and inspectors of schools, the facts, documents, and ideas, which might interest or enlighten them. When the act passed, I caused five elementary manuals to be arranged and published as guides to the teachers in the restricted course of instruction, the limits and objects of which were expressly indicated. I lost no time in providing for the intellectual wants of these schools and their masters, whose material necessities, if not fully satisfied, were at least protected from destitution and oblivion.

The best laws, instructions, and books, avail but little, if the hearts of the parties charged with their promulgation are not interested in the mission confided to them; and if they do not second it with a certain amount of enthusiasm and faith. I neither undervalue legislative labor nor the mechanism of administration. Though insufficient, they are not the less necessary. They are the plans and scaffoldings of the building to be constructed; but the workmen, the intelligent and devoted artificers, are infinitely more important. Above all other considerations, men must be formed and adapted to the service of ideas, if we wish to convert the latter into real and living facts. I endeavored to penetrate even to

the very soul of popular teachers, and to excite amongst them enlightened notions and an affectionate respect for the task to which they were called. Within three weeks after the act on elementary education had been published, I forwarded it directly to 39,800 masters of schools, accompanied by a letter in which I not only explained to them its bearings and conditions, but endeavored also to raise their feelings to the moral level of their humble position in the social scale, without suggesting to them either a pretext or a temptation for soaring above it. I required them to acknowledge to me personally the receipt of this letter, and to state the impression it had left on their minds. Thirteen thousand eight hundred and fifty answers reached me in reply, many of which led me to conclude that I had not always knocked in vain at the doors of these unpretending abodes, where thousands of obscure children were destined to receive from an unknown individual the first, and in many instances the only scholastic lessons of their lives. This experiment, joined to others, has taught me, that when we wish to act with more than ordinary power upon men, we ought not to be afraid of pointing out to them an object, or of addressing them in a language above their situation and habits; neither should we feel discouraged if many amongst them fail to respond to these unaccustomed invitations. They attract a far greater number of minds than they repulse, and we may still believe in the virtue of the seed, even when the fruits fail to appear.

When I conceived the idea of this circular letter to the teachers, I mentioned it to M. de Rémusat, and begged him to draw it up for me. As I received it from him, it was dispatched to its destination and soon after published. It gratifies me to repeat this here. Rare friendships survive mental doubts and the troubles of life, even when they seem to have suffered from them.

Another plan, unforeseen and difficult of execution, appeared to me necessary in order to establish relations with the teachers dispersed throughout France, to know them really, and to act upon them in other ways than by casual and empty words. One month after the promulgation of the new law, I ordered a general inspection of all the elementary schools in the kingdom, public or private. I desired not only to verify the external and material facts which usually form the object of statistical inquiries on the question of primary instruction—such as the number of schools and scholars, their classification, their age, and the incidental expenses of the service—but I particularly directed the inspectors to study the interior economy of the schools, the aptitude, zeal, and conduct of the teachers, their relations with the pupils, the families, and the local authorities, civil and religious; in a word, the moral state of that branch of education, and its results. Facts of this nature can not be ascertained at a distance, by means of correspondence, or descriptions. Special visits, personal communication, and a close examination of men and things, are indispensable to this just estimate and understanding. Four hundred and ninety persons, the greater number of whom were functionaries of every order in the University, gave themselves up during

four months to this arduous investigation. Thirty-three thousand four hundred and fifty six schools were actually visited, and morally described in the reports addressed to me by the inspectors. One amongst the number, with whose rare ability and indefatigable zeal I had long been familiar, M. Lorain, now an honorary rector, drew up from these collected reports a table of elementary instruction in France, in 1833, even more remarkable for the moral and practical views therein developed, than for the number and variety of facts comprised. This laborious undertaking not only had the effect of giving me a more complete and precise knowledge of the condition and real necessities of elementary instruction, but it furnished the public, in the most remote corners of the country, with a living instance of the active solicitude of the government for popular education. At the same time it powerfully stimulated the teachers, by impressing on them a sense of the interest attached to their office, and of the vigilance with which they were overlooked.

Two years later, on my proposition, a royal decree transformed this casual and single inspection of the elementary schools into a permanent arrangement. In every district, an inspector was appointed to visit the schools at stated periods, and to communicate fully to the minister, the rectors, the prefects, and the general and municipal councils, their condition and wants. Since that time, and throughout repeated debates, whether in the Chambers or in the local and elective councils, the utility of this institution has become so apparent, that at the request of a majority of the councils, an inspector has been established in every district, and the periodical inspection of elementary schools has taken its place in the administration of public instruction, as one of the most effective guarantees of their sufficiency and progress.

It has sometimes been a mistake of power when it enters on an important work to wish to carry it out alone, and to mistrust liberty as a rival if not as an enemy. I had no such suspicion. On the contrary, I felt convinced that the coöperation of unfettered zeal, particularly religious zeal, was indispensable, both for the progress of popular teaching and for its sound direction. There are generous impulses in the laical world, emotions of moral ardor which assist the advancement of great public undertakings; but the spirit of Christian charity and faith alone carry into such works that complete disinterestedness, that disposition and habit of self-sacrifice, that modest perseverance, which secure while they purify success. For this reason, I took great pains to defend the religious societies dedicated to elementary education, against the prejudices and ill-feeling by which they were too often attacked. I not only protected them in their liberty, but I assisted them in their wants, looking upon them as the most honorable rivals and the safest auxiliaries that civil authority in its efforts to promote popular education could expect to be associated with. I owe them the justice of declaring that notwithstanding the suspicious susceptibility which these pious brotherhoods naturally felt toward the new government, and a Protestant minister, they soon acquired full confidence in the sincerity of the good-will

I exhibited toward them, and acted with me in the most amicable spirit. While the law of the 28th of June, 1888, was under debate in the Chambers, to mark distinctly this mutual understanding, and to give the principal of these communities, the brethren of Christian Doctrine, a public token of esteem, I directed an inquiry to be made of Brother Anaclet, their superior-general, whether according to the statutes of the fraternity, he was permitted to receive the cross of honor. He replied by the following letter, which I have much pleasure in preserving:—

SIR AND MINISTER:—The proposal so complimentary to our order which M. Delabecque conveyed to me yesterday on the part of your Excellency, has impressed me with a lively sense of gratitude, and has convinced me more and more of the truly paternal benevolence with which the government deigns to honor us.

Our holy institutor has inserted nothing in our rules which formally interdicts acceptance of the offer you have had the goodness to make, without any merit on our part, simply because he could not possibly foresee that his humble disciples would ever have an opportunity of declining such a flattering proposition. But looking at the spirit of our laws, which all lead to inspire estrangement from the world, and a renunciation of its honors and distinctions, we feel ourselves called upon humbly to thank your Excellency for the distinguished offer you have conveyed to us, and to accept with our refusal our excuses and thanks. We shall not the less preserve as long as we live a grateful remembrance of your inestimable goodness, and we shall declare loudly, as is our daily practice, the testimonies of kind feeling and protection we so continually receive from the King's government, and especially from the minister of Public Instruction and the members of the Royal Council.

Another religious society, the congregation of Christian Instruction, founded in Brittany by the Abbé J. M. de la Mennais, particularly attracted my attention and support. The name of the founder, his mind at once simple and cultivated, his entire devotion to his work, his practical ability, his independence toward his own party, the frankness of his intercourse with the civil powers—in fact, every thing connected with his character, inspired me with unsuspicious sympathy, to which he responded by even inviting, of his own accord, (rare confidence in an ecclesiastic,) the official inspection of his schools. On the 8d of May, 1884, he wrote to me as follows: "When I had the honor of seeing you in the month of October last, you were so kind as to tell me that an inspector-general of the University would, on your part, visit my establishment of Ploërmel in 1884. I am most anxious to witness the fulfillment of this obliging promise, but I am also desirous of knowing at what time he will come, for otherwise it is almost certain he would not find me here, owing to the continual journeys I am compelled to take at this season. It is, however, most important that I should meet him, as I have many things to communicate of deep interest for the progress of elementary instruction in Brittany." Two years later, on the 15th of October, 1886, he furnished me with a detailed account of the state of his institution, of the obstacles he encountered, of the insufficiency of his resources, of the wants he wished me to supply; and finished by saying: "The minister of Marine has instructed the Prefect of Morbihan to convey to me his desire of having some of our brethren to instruct the enfranchised slaves of Martinique and Guadaloupe. I have not said no, for it would be a

beautiful and holy work ; neither have I yet said *yes*, for the sad objection always recurs, where shall we find the materials of supplying so many wants, and why send our brethren so far off when we are so scantily supplied ? * * * Alas ! if I were only assisted as I desire ! ”

Every time that I met this honest and stanch Breton, a pious ecclesiastic and an ardent instructor of the people, so exclusively devoted to his position and undertaking, my thoughts reverted mournfully toward his brother, that great but ill-regulated spirit, lost in his own passions, and confounded amongst the intellectual malefactors of his age ; he who seemed born to be one of its severest guides. I have never known nor even seen the Abbé Felicité de La Mennais ; I am only acquainted with him through his writings, by what his friends have recorded, and by the bilious, repulsive, and unhappy portrait drawn of him by Ary Scheffer, the painter of the human heart. I admire as much as any one the lofty and daring intelligence which mounts to a pinnacle, and plunges from thence to the extremest boundary of thought, wherever it may be ; the grave and impassioned talent, brilliant and pure, bitter and melancholy, elegantly severe, and sometimes touching in its sadness. I feel convinced that he possessed within that soul, where pride wounded to death seemed to exercise sole empire, many noble aspirations, upright desires, and painfully conflicting sentiments. In what have all these gifts eventuated ? It will form one of the heaviest and most specious complaints against the age in which we live, to have so reduced this lofty nature, and others of a similar standard whom I abstain from naming, but who under our own observation have equally contributed to their self-abasement. Undoubtedly these fallen spirits were the agents of their own ruin ; but they were also exposed to such a host of fatal temptations, they took part in so many seductive and tempestuous scenes, they lived in such a total confusion of human thought, ambition, and destiny, they achieved such easy and brilliant triumphs by their very wanderings, and by flattering the passions and errors of the day—that we can scarcely feel surprise when we mark the growth of the evil seeds that finally overpowered them. For my own part, while contemplating these uncommon men, my illustrious and ill-fated contemporaries, I feel more sorrow than anger, and implore pardon for them, at the very moment when, in my heart, I can not abstain from pronouncing a severe condemnation on their works and their influence.

I return now to elementary education. On the 15th of April, 1834, within a year after the promulgation of the law of the 28th of June, 1833, I communicated to the King the nature of its progress, in a detailed report including acts, documents, and results. I repeat here, in a few words and figures, such of the latter as can be so conveyed. In the course of the year named, the number of primary schools for boys increased from 81,420 to 83,695, and the pupils actually receiving instruction from 1,200,715 to 1,654,828. In 1272 townships, school-houses had been built, purchased, or completely repaired. Fifteen new elementary normal schools had been established. Thirteen years later, by the end

of 1847, through the unremitting efforts of my successors in the department of Public Instruction, the number of elementary schools for boys had augmented from 38,695 to 43,514; that of the pupils from 1,654,828 to 2,176,079; and of the school-houses belonging to the townships, from 10,816 to 23,761. Seventy-six primary normal schools supplied masters to every department. I pass over in silence all that had either been begun or accomplished for girls' schools, asylums, work-rooms, and other establishments directly or indirectly affecting popular education.

Such at the end of fifteen years were the fruits of the law of the 28th of June, 1833, and of the movement which I can not say it created, but which it undoubtedly directed to a real and effective institution.

The year 1848 subjected this law and all others, in common with the schools and France herself, to a terrible trial. As soon as the storm had subsided a little, a powerful reaction sprang up against primary instruction, as also against liberty, movement, and progress. The elementary teachers were accused in the mass of being abettors or instruments of revolution. The imputed mischief was real, though less general than was said and believed. We blame institutions and laws for the mischief we have produced. We accuse them to exonerate ourselves, as the man would do who condemns and abandons his house after he has set fire to it with his own hands. Elementary instruction is not a sovereign panacea capable of curing every moral disease of a nation, nor all-sufficient for intellectual health. It is a salutary or pernicious ingredient, according as it is ill or well directed; restrained within due bounds or carried beyond its proper scope. When a new and influential force, physical or moral, steam or intelligence, once enters the world, it can never be expelled; we must learn how to turn it to profitable account. If we fail to do this, it disseminates pell-mell, and in all directions, fertility and destruction. In our degree and present state of civilization, the education of the people has become an absolute necessity, a fact equally indispensable and inevitable.

Public consciousness is evidently awake to this, for in the catastrophe which demonstrated the weak points of elementary instruction, and in the midst of the clamor excited on that subject, it has not been utterly overthrown. The law of the 28th of June, 1833, has received various modifications, some salutary, others questionable; but all its principles and essential provisions have survived in their full vigor. Founded by that law, primary education is now, amongst us, a public institution and an acquired fact. Much, undoubtedly, remains yet to be done for the judicious government of the schools, to secure in their internal economy those influences of religion and order, of faith and law, which constitute the dignity and safety of a nation. But if, as I confidently trust, God has not condemned French society to exhaust itself, rudely or silently, in fruitless alternations of fever and forgetfulness, of license and apathy, what remains to be effected for the great work of popular education, will accomplish itself, and its completion will not have been purchased at too costly a price.

NOTE.

CIRCULAR *drawn up by M. Rémusat, and addressed by M. Guizot to 39,300 elementary teachers in France, in transmitting to them the Act of the 28th of June, 1833:—*

SIR:—I send you herewith the law of the 28th of June last, on elementary education; together with a statement of the reasons that led to its enactment when, in obedience to the orders of the King, I had the honor of presenting it, on the 2d of January, to the Chamber of Deputies.

This law is, in reality, the charter of elementary education; and for that reason I am anxious that it should directly reach the knowledge, and remain in the possession of every tutor. If you study it carefully, and reflect with attention on its provisions, as well as on the motives which develop its true spirit, you may be assured of thoroughly comprehending your duties and privileges, together with the new position assigned to you by our institutions.

Do not deceive yourself. Although the career of an elementary teacher may be unostentatious; although his life and labors may, for the most part, be consumed within the boundary of a single township,—those labors interest society at large, and his profession participates in the importance of public duties. It is not for a particular district, or for any interest exclusively local, that the law desires every Frenchman to acquire, if possible, the knowledge indispensable to social existence, without which intelligence languishes, and sometimes becomes brutified. The law is for the state at large, and for the public advantage; and because liberty can neither be assured nor regular, except with a people sufficiently enlightened to listen, under all circumstances, to the voice of reason. Universal elementary education will become henceforward a guarantee for order and social stability. As all the principles of our government are sound and rational, to develop intellect and propagate light, is to confirm the empire and durability of our constitutional monarchy.

Convince yourself, therefore, of the importance of your mission; let its utility be ever present to your thoughts, in the unremitting labors it imposes on you. You will see that legislation and government are strenuously exerting themselves to ameliorate the condition and secure the future of the tutors. In the first place, the free exercise of their profession, throughout the entire kingdom, is assured to them, while the right of teaching can neither be refused nor withdrawn from those who show themselves capable and worthy of such a mission. Every township is bound, moreover, to open an asylum for elementary education. To every commercial tutor a fixed salary is appointed. A special and variable gratuity will increase this allowance. A mode of collection, conformable at the same time to your dignity and your interests, facilitates the recovery of this, without trenching, in other respects, on the liberty of private engagements. By the institution of savings' banks resources are provided for the old age of the masters. From their youth, dispensation from military service, proves to them the interest with which they are regarded by society. In the performance of their duties they are subject only to enlightened and disinterested authorities. Their lives are sheltered from arbitrary power and persecution. Finally, the approbation of their legitimate superiors will encourage their good conduct and establish their success; and in some instances, even, a brilliant reward, which their modest ambition could never anticipate, may prove to them that the King's government watches over their services and knows how to honor them.

At the same time I am fully aware that the foresight of the law, and the resources yielded by power, can never render the simple profession of a country tutor as attractive as it is useful. Society is unable to repay to those who devote themselves to these duties, all the advantages they impart. They can not make fortunes, and can scarcely win renown under the painful obligations they encounter. Destined to see their lives pass on in monotonous labors, occasionally exposed to injustice, ingratitude, and ignorance, they would often despond, and break down perhaps, if they did not derive strength and courage from other sources than the prospect of immediate and purely personal interests. A profound sentiment of the moral importance of their efforts, can alone sustain and animate them. The austere gratification of having served their fellow-men, and of secretly contributing to the public good, will constitute the noble salary that conscience only

can bestow. It will be their glory to assume nothing beyond that obscure and painstaking condition, to exhaust themselves in sacrifices scarcely valued by those who profit by them, to labor, in fact, for the advantage of man, and to expect their reward from God alone.

It is also manifest that wherever elementary education has prospered, a religious sentiment has been combined, in those who propagate it, with the taste for enlightenment and instruction. May you, sir, find in these hopes and in their convictions worthy of a sound intellect and a pure heart, an amount of satisfaction and constancy which, perhaps, renown and patriotism alone might fail to bestow.

Viewed in this light, the numerous and varied duties confided to you will appear more easy and agreeable, and will exercise superior empire over your mind. Allow me to recall and impress them on you. Henceforward, on becoming a district teacher, you belong to public instruction. The title you bear, conferred by the minister, is placed under his safeguard. The University claims you; while superintending, it protects and admits you to a proportion of the privileges which render teaching a species of magistracy. But the new character with which you are invested authorizes me to retrace the engagements you contract on receiving it. My right of interference is not limited to a recital of the laws and regulations you are scrupulously to observe; it extends to establishing and maintaining the principles which ought to govern the moral conduct of the tutor, and the violation of which would compromise the very dignity of the body to which he may henceforward belong. It is not enough, in fact, to respect the text of the laws; interest alone would compel so much, for they revenge themselves on those who infringe them; but beyond and above this, it is necessary to prove by conduct that their moral value is understood, that the order they are instituted to maintain is voluntarily and sincerely acknowledged, and that even in default of legal enactment, conscience would supply a power as holy and coercive.

Your first duties, sir, are toward the children confided to your care. The tutor is called by the father of a family to a participation of his natural authority. It becomes him to exercise it with the same vigilance, and almost with the same affection. Not only are the life and health of the child referred to his keeping, but the training of its heart and understanding almost entirely depend on him.

As regards teaching, properly so called, nothing will be wanting that can assist you. A normal school will supply you with lessons and examples; special committees will transmit to you regularly useful instructions, and the University itself will maintain with you a constant correspondence. The King has warmly sanctioned the publication of a journal exclusively applicable to elementary education. I will take care that this *general manual* shall spread in all quarters, together with the official acts that concern you, a knowledge of the best systems, endeavors, and practical ideas that the schools require; a comparison of the results obtained in France and in foreign countries; and, in fine, a summary of all that can direct zeal, facilitate success, and encourage emulation.

But on the point of moral education, I must trust much to yourself. Nothing can supply your own natural inclination to do well. You are aware that herein, beyond all doubt, lies the most important and difficult part of your mission. You must feel that in confiding to you a child, every family calls upon you to make him an honest man, while the state expects a useful citizen. You know that virtues do not always accompany knowledge, and that the lessons imprinted on the infant understanding may become pernicious if addressed to intelligence alone. Let the tutor therefore have no fear of interfering with family rights, by bestowing his first cares on the internal culture of the minds of his pupils. He must be equally cautious not to open his school to the spirit of sect or party, or to instill into the scholars any religious or political doctrines which may place them, as it were, in opposition to the authority of domestic councils; he should therefore rise beyond the passing quarrels which disturb society, to apply himself incessantly to the propagation and establishment of those imperishable principles of morality and reason without which universal order is imperiled; and to the deep implanting into young hearts of those seeds of virtue and honor, which age and passion can not afterwards eradicate. Faith in Providence, the sanctity of duty, submission to paternal authority, respect to the laws, to the sovereign, and to the common rights of all; such are the sentiments the teacher must labor to develop. Never let him, either by conversation or example, incur the risk of undermining

in his pupils the feeling of veneration for worth, never by expressions of hatred or revenge let him incline them to those blind prejudices which create national enemies in the bosom of the nation itself. The peace and concord he will maintain in his school, ought if possible to prepare the tranquility and union of future generations.

The relations between the teacher and the parents ought to be frequent, and cordial. If he does not possess the good-will of the families, his authority over the children will be compromised; and the fruit of his lessons lost. He can not therefore be too prudent and careful in these communications. An intimacy lightly formed might endanger his independence, and sometimes even involve him in those local discussions which so frequently embarrass small communities. While listening complacently to the reasonable demands of relatives, he must take care not to sacrifice his principles of education and the discipline of his school to their capricious desires. A school should represent the asylum of equality, or, to speak correctly, of justice.

The duties of the teacher toward constituted authority are even clearer and not less important. He is himself an authority in his township. How then could he set an example of insubordination? How could he do otherwise than respect the municipal magistrates, the religious directors, the legal powers who maintain public security? What a future would he prepare for the population in the midst of which he lives, if by his ill conduct or mischievous conversation, he were to ferment amongst his pupils that disposition to find fault with and condemn every thing, which may hereafter ripen into an instrument of immorality and anarchy!

The Mayor is the chief of the township, the head of local superintendence. It is therefore the pressing duty as well as the interest of the teacher to treat him on all occasions with the deference to which he is entitled. The parish priest and pastor also demand respect, for their ministry involves the most elevated feelings of human nature. If it should so happen that the minister of religion, by some fatality, were to withhold just cordiality from the teacher, the latter assuredly is not called upon to humiliate himself to regain his good opinion, but he should endeavor with increased assiduity to merit it by his conduct, and wait confidently for the result. Let the success of his school disarm unjust prejudices, let his own prudence remove every pretext for intolerance. Hypocrisy is to be avoided as much as impiety. Nothing can be more desirable than a perfect understanding between the clergyman and the schoolmaster; both are invested with moral authority, and can act in concert to exercise over youth a common influence through different means.

In conclusion, I have no occasion to dwell on your relations with the special authorities which watch over the schools, and with the University itself. You will obtain from them general advice, all necessary directions, and frequently a support against local difficulties and incidental enmity. The administration has no other interests than those of elementary education, which are, in fact, your own. It only requires of you to understand thoroughly and progressively the spirit of your mission. While, on its part, it will carefully protect your rights, your interests, and your future, do you, in turn, maintain by unremitting vigilance the dignity of your position. Do not disorder it by unseasonable speculations, or by employments incompatible with instruction. Keep your eyes fixed on every possible method of improving the instruction you disperse around you. Assistance will not be wanting. In the greater number of large towns, advanced classes are opened; in the normal schools, places are reserved for such tutors as may feel desirous of going there to improve their teaching. Every day it becomes easier for you to obtain, at a trifling cost, a library sufficient for your requirements. Finally, in some districts and cantons, conferences have already been established between the teachers. By these means, they can unite their common experience and encourage each other by mutual aid.

At the moment when, under the auspices of a new legislation, you are about to enter on a new career, when elementary education is destined to become the object of the most extensive practical experience that has ever yet been attempted in our country, I have felt it my duty to detail to you the principles which govern the administration of public instruction, and the hopes founded on your exertions. I rely on your utmost endeavors to insure the success of our undertaking.

Modifications from 1848 to 1868.

(6.) After the revolution of February the republican government endeavored to ameliorate the condition of the instructors in the primary schools, and presented among others a project for declaring primary instruction gratuitous and compulsory. This project was, however, withdrawn after the accession of Louis Napoleon. In April, 1849 (M. de Falloux being minister), an appropriation of three millions of francs was made for those instructors whose salary was under six hundred a year.

But the state of feeling among the primary instructors awakened in the government much solicitude. The troubles of February brought into full view the spirit of restlessness which had communicated itself to the teachers in common with all the other classes of society, and had displaced that feeling of contentment which had characterized them under the monarchy of July. In order to counteract this spirit it was decided to place the teachers under administrative surveillance, and accordingly the power of nominating, suspending, and dismissing them, which by the law of 1833 was in the hands of the committee of the arrondissement, was (January 11, 1850) taken from them and given to the prefects of the departments. Soon after, by a law of March 15, 1850, these powers were taken from the prefects and given to the rectors of the academies instituted by it, one in each department, who were to be assisted by the inspectors of the schools, one in each arrondissement. These inspectors were thus increased from 220 to 300 in 1851.

It also suppressed the local and arrondissement committees established by the law of 1833, and gave to the municipal council the power of nominating the teachers formerly reposed in the council of the arrondissement. The duties of the local committee were assigned to the mayor and the *curé*. At the centre of the department the academical council was invested with sufficient powers to maintain discipline and repress disorders, members of it in each canton visiting the schools in its name, and suggesting whatever measures should seem proper to be taken.

The 38th article provided that salaries, never less than 600 francs, should be paid to all the primary teachers, and the 39th that pension funds should be substituted for the savings funds which had been created in their favor. Gratuitous instruction was not established universally, but only for those unable to pay (art. 24), and (art. 36) for all classes in those schools which were entirely supported by the commune itself. It was decreed that the annual budget should open credits to encourage the authors of books useful in primary instruction, to found such institutions as Sunday schools, schools in the workshops or factories, and libraries of useful books. Finally permission was granted to every commune numbering more than eight hundred souls able to discharge the costs, to open a girls' school, but no salary was guaranteed to the teachers. A salary of 400 to 500 francs has since then been appointed for female teachers in girls' schools.

What were the results of this law? In 1850 there were in France

34,428 communal boys' schools or mixed schools, with an attendance of 1,923,359 pupils, of which 682,326 were admitted without payment. In 1852 there were 36,108 communal schools, with an attendance of 2,258,552, of which 910,169 received gratuitous instruction. This was an increase of 335,193, of which 237,843 paid nothing.

But the increase in the prosperity of the primary schools exhausted the resources of the department, and the government now attempted to diminish them. The decree of December 31, 1853, accomplished this by indirectly reducing the amount paid the instructors, providing that no one should receive the appointment of teacher (*instituteur*) until he had served three years as teacher adjunct (*suppléant*), and the latter was to be paid not 600, but 400 to 500 francs. Moreover, schools numbering not more than forty scholars might be taught by female teachers at the same salary as the teachers adjunct, and the prefects could fix annually, on the proposition of the cantonal delegates, the maximum number of pupils who were to be admitted into the public schools.

We have seen that primary instruction was, in 1850, placed under the authority of the rectors. By a decree of March 9, 1852, they acquired the right of personally appointing those who were to fill the vacancies in the schools under their charge. But the inspection of primary instruction requires that its innumerable details shall be closely watched, and when the academies were reduced from eighty-six to sixteen, the government, finding that the new rectors would be at too great a distance from their schools, by law of June 21, 1854, transferred the authority exercised by them to the prefects of the departments, in whose hands it now remains.

There was the additional reason asserted for this step, that in a country exercising the privilege of universal suffrage, the primary school system was of high political importance and ought to be entrusted to those in whose hands lies the keeping of social order, the prefects. The presidency of the old academic council, and all the powers necessary to enable them to direct the popular schools in the manner most favorable to the public peace and the will of the Emperor, were given to them. This change in supervision was at first very distasteful to the corps of teachers, who preferred the paternal jurisdiction of the rectors to that of strangers foreign to their habits and their spirit. The intellectual direction of the schools very properly rests with the rectors, since it is their duty to watch the progress of the scholars and the systems of education, and the books employed.

In the meantime the system of adjunct teachers worked badly, the teachers, receiving only 400 or 500 francs without being permitted to avail themselves of other sources of profit, became dissatisfied, and after the required ten years period abandoned public instruction to engage in other business. Accordingly the law was gradually modified and repealed. First, the salaries of all the teachers adjunct were fixed at 500 francs (July 20, 1858, Rouland, minister); then the title and the attendant reduction of pay were abolished (Dec. 29, 1860). In 1853, as a set-off for the re-

ductions made in the salaries of the younger teachers, those of the older had been raised to 700 francs after five years of service, and 800 after ten, and these were continued even after the obnoxious regulation for which they had been intended to compensate, was abolished. More than this, by a decree of April 19, 1862, the salaries of those teachers who were particularly zealous and successful and had served fifteen years, were raised to 900 francs. At the present time, then, every teacher receives a gradual increase of pay from 600 to 900 francs in fifteen years.

By a decree of April 19, 1862 (M. Rouland, minister), graduates of the primary normal schools who had been educated at the expense of the general government or of the departments, received a donation of 100 francs to pay their expenses to the place to which they should be summoned. By a decree of September 4, 1863 (M. Duruy, minister), the poor communes were assisted in procuring the furniture necessary for the teacher and his family, for which he had previously often been compelled to run into debt.

The number of inspectors was, in 1868, raised to 370, one for each *arrondissement*, having been 300 in 1851, and afterwards 280. Their pay was from 1,200 to 2,000 francs, not more than two-thirds rising above 1,200. In 1858 (June 21, M. Rouland, minister), they were divided into three classes, equal in number, and their salaries were fixed at 1,600, 2,000, and 2,400, the result being that most of the places were immediately filled. Since then they have been raised (July 8, 1864) to 2,000 and 2,400, only two classes being formed, and again to 2,000, 2,400, and 2,600. To the inspectors is due the progress made in popular teaching during the last twenty-five years, and this increase of salary is well deserved.

The erection of new school buildings and the improvement of the old, has been encouraged by the government by subsidies amounting on an average to one-fourth of the total expense, assistance being given in 1863 to 674 communes, in 1864 to 530, in 1865 to 864, in 1866 to 904. The total sum of the expense of the public treasury during these four years, has amounted to 6,827,887 francs. There are now, according to the statistics of 1865, 27,642 schools in buildings belonging to the communes, and 10,744 in buildings not their property; of the first only 19,398 are well adapted to this purpose, the others are in no wise suitable, or suitable in certain respects only, as for class-rooms or teachers' dwellings.

To complete the benefits of a system of primary education it must be made accessible to all. Education in France is not gratuitous, but a law of 1850 had declared that all poor children should receive instruction free of charge. M. Fortoul, and after him M. Rouland, attempted to reconcile this provision with that of the decree of 1853 that the number of pupils admitted to gratuitous instruction should be limited, but without success; this limitation shut out many poor pupils from the schools, and the law was infringed both in spirit and in letter. M. Duruy ordered that the rigor of this exclusion should be relaxed, expressing the wish, in the Emperor's name, that no single pupil should be excluded on account of pov-

erty. Finally (March 28, 1866) the provisions of the decree of 1853 were restored, and at present, to enter a communal school it is only necessary for a pupil to bring a note from the mayor recommending the insertion of his name in the list of those to be admitted.

(7.) It remains to inquire what influence has been exerted on the march of primary instruction, by the efforts of the government and of private individuals, the concurrence of the people, and the charitable zeal of religious communities.

On the 1st January, 1864, there were 818 communes without schools. France possessed 20,703 special schools for boys, 14,059 special schools for girls, and 17,683 "mixed schools." These schools were attended by 3,413,830 pupils, viz: 2,053,614 boys, and 1,360,156 girls. There were, in the number, 1,312,269 free or gratuitous pupils.

These numbers, which applied to the public schools only, equalled within 200,000 children, the school population of all the public and private schools on the 1st January, 1868.

They showed in a striking manner that since the law of the 15th March, 1850, notwithstanding the rapid changes in legislation and jurisprudence, in some respects hurtful, primary instruction had not ceased to make progress. In the two years which followed, the progress, far from ceasing, was rather accelerated, as proved by the report of the minister on the state of public instruction on the first of January, 1866.

At that time, there were only 694 communes instead of 818, which were without all means of instruction. There were 38,629 public schools for boys or mixed schools, and 14,721 communal schools for girls—that is to say, in the course of two years, 905 new schools had been created. The attendance had increased by 63,712 children of both sexes, which had raised the number of pupils from 3,413,830, to 3,477,542. The encouragement given to the extension of gratuitous instruction had raised the number of free pupils to 1,366,360, with an increase of 54,091 compared with 1863.

The following statistics show the division of the public schools between the lay teachers and the members of religious associations devoted to instruction: in 1864, there were 41,959 lay schools, viz: 19,044 for boys, 16,516 mixed, and 6,399 for girls. These contained 2,340,344 children of both sexes, of whom 704,028 pay no fee. There were 11,391 schools directed by religious communities, viz: 1,970 for boys, 1,099 mixed, and 8,322 for girls. They have 1,137,198 pupils, of whom 662,332 are gratuitous.

In 1863, the religious communities directed only 11,099 public schools for both sexes; in 1862, only 10,862; in 1850, only 6,464. They are therefore making progress, and, when we go back seventeen years, this progress seems considerable. However, two points are to be noted: the first, that the increase is principally in the girls' schools, of which only 5,237 in 1850 were directed by nuns; the second, that according to the reports of inspection, summed up in the statistics of primary instruction

in 1863, out of 3,038 communal schools for boys or mixed schools, confided to religious communities, 1,066 were well kept, 957 moderately well, while only 68 had been judged really inferior; that out of 8,061 schools for girls, 2,893 were well kept, 2,630 moderately well, only 155 inferior. The good schools, therefore, far outnumber the bad. In the majority of schools governed by the religious associations, they have justified the confidence of the municipal councils, and therefore we cannot be astonished at the choice of these councils, nor especially regret it, even while expressing the wish that the associations may use all their efforts to reform the errors which have been pointed out in some of their establishments.

Let us now consider the primary schools collectively. To the 3,477,542 children who attend the public schools, add 958,928 who are received in the private schools, and we shall have a total of 4,436,470 children of both sexes, who in 1865, had the benefit of primary instruction. How many remain who are deprived of all instruction? That is difficult to establish positively. The inquiries set on foot by the administration seem to prove that out of about four millions of children, aged from seven to thirteen years, who exist in France, nearly 700,000 do not appear in the schools. But there must be deducted from this number, the children taught at home, or in establishments of secondary instruction. Their number are estimated at 260,000. It is certain that the official documents do not place the number of children of both sexes who pass their early years in destitution and ignorance, above 440,000.

But these figures do not express the actual results of the course of primary instruction on the minds of those who have received it, so well as the annual tables published by the minister of war respecting the young men affected by the recruiting law. In 1829, out of 282,985 conscripts, 149,824, that is, more than 52 per cent., could neither read nor write; in 1847, the proportion had diminished to 38 per cent.; in 1865, to less than 25 per cent. Such facts prove that the devotion and experience of so many enlightened ministers, so many charitable associations, so many noble men, who have labored to diffuse primary instruction in the most humble ranks, have not been lavished in vain. And yet it is sad to think, that after all such efforts, a quarter of the population remains unacquainted with the most simple elements of human knowledge.

The situation presents itself under the same aspect when we observe the number of persons married recently who were unable to sign the act of their marriage. There, again, progress is at the same time perceptible and slow. Foot by foot ignorance disputes the ground with instruction and intelligence. Thus, in 1866, out of 581,138 couples, there were 194,407 who could not write, viz: 75,208 men, and 119,199 women; that is, an average of 25.88 per cent. of men, and 41.02 of women, and a general average of 33.45 of the total number.

Under the sad impression of such results, the minister (M. Duruy) proposed to the Emperor, 1863, to make a law which would oblige all heads of families to procure at least primary instruction for their children.

This was not the first time that such a proposition had been made as the most direct remedy for the ignorance of the people. But under no régime, within half a century, had its partisans succeeded in introducing it into the legislation of the country. Scarcely discussed in 1833, on the introduction of the project of a law on primary instruction, it had been rejected in 1850 in the course of the deliberations on its thorough revision by a large majority of the legislative assembly. The opponents of obligatory instruction accused it of attacking the rights of the heads of families, and of being a concealed menace against the liberty of conscience. In vain was quoted the example of foreign nations; the answer was, the customs of France are not those of Germany or Switzerland, and that in France the system of obligation has only two historical antecedents, both odious to the country: the first, the edict of 1724 against the Protestants, whom religious intolerance wished to force them to send their children to Catholic schools; the second, a revolutionary decree dated from the most horrible days of the Convention. The proposition of the minister did not become a law, but it served to awaken public opinion, and thus resulted to the advantage of popular education. Those who had combatted most energetically the plan to render attendance at school obligatory for all children who did not receive instruction at home, felt the necessity of taking away every pretext for this project, either by multiplying around them the means of instruction, or using their influence to induce families not to allow their children to remain in ignorance. Such is the career in which the country finds itself engaged to-day. If it pursues it with firmness, it will, by the mere force of example and persuasion, more surely than by constraint, attain the goal.

Adult Instruction.

(8.) It is well known that in France, most children leave school immediately after their first communion, about the age of thirteen, at the very period when their minds demand the most care, and when they can be the most successfully cultivated. During the years which follow they cease to acquire new knowledge, and many soon forget the few things which they have already learned. As soon as primary instruction in France had made some progress, the necessity was felt of opening courses for adults, in order to complete the instruction of some, and to commence, if necessary, that of others.* The courses for adults figure for the first time in the statistics prepared in 1837, by M. de Salvandy. There were then 1,856, attended by 36,966 persons; in 1840, there were 3,403; in 1843, 6,434; on the 1st January, 1848, 6,877. In 1848 and the following years, their number sensibly diminished. The club was then coming into competition

*The first school for adults was founded in Paris in 1820, by M. Delakaye; the second in 1821, by M. Saragui, and three more in 1822. In 1829 Paris had 12 schools attended by both sexes. In 1830 an evening school was opened by the Christian Brothers. In 1833 M. Guizot alluded to them in an order of the department, and in 1835 they were formally recognized and aided by the government; and in 1837 (law of April 10), they were incorporated into the school organization of the country.

with the school, and the revolutionary agitation left the workmen neither the leisure nor the desire to come peaceably, at the close of the day, and sit down before a master to hear his lessons.

When quiet was reestablished, the courses for adults came back into favor but slowly. In 1863, there were only 4,294, receiving 120,647 pupils; but dating from that moment, they increased in number. During the winter 1864-1865, there were 7,855 adult courses, attended by 187,615 pupils. During the winter 1865-1866, there were 24,686 opened in 22,947 communes, through the devotion of the instructors.

The audience of these courses was composed of 42,567 women and 552,939 men, "of whom the largest number," as M. Duruy observed at a school celebration, "had arrived at the age when experience makes most keen the regret for neglected or lost opportunities of instruction." It is by such efforts of zeal on the part of the masters, and studious curiosity on the part of the population, that the scourge of ignorance will be successfully combatted in adults, and that the knowledge necessary to all will be spread among those who do not now possess it. Nor has this progressive movement ceased. During the first quarter of 1867, there were 82,000 adult courses, attended by 830,000 auditors. The government, which has encouraged the work by public rewards bestowed upon the instructors, has attempted to encourage it by pecuniary allowances also, intended on the one hand, to reward the labor of the master, and on the other, to pay the expenses of the courses. A credit of 160,000 francs was opened, to this end, in the budget of 1867, which was increased to 500,000 francs in the budget for 1868.

Normal Schools.—Methods.—Libraries.

(9.) Experience and reason showing that it is difficult to form good teachers and to acquaint them with the best methods, without giving them practice in model institutions, normal schools have been created. The first was founded at Strasbourg in 1810, by Count Lezay de Marnesia, then prefect of the Lower Rhine. Napoleon, on his return from Elba, had projected a vast establishment which was to furnish teachers to all parts of the empire, and the government of the restoration, guided by the same views, encouraged the foundation of primary normal schools in the departments. At the time of the promulgation of the law of June 28, 1833, there were in France forty-seven schools of this description, a number which the new law would in time have raised to seventy-five.

In the mean time, many objections were made to the system, on the ground that while the real office of the teachers of the communal schools was to impart the most elementary instruction, the course pursued in the normal schools included too many subjects, and treated some of them in a more exhaustive manner than was necessary. This objection made a profound impression, and after the preparation of the law of March 15, 1850, its authors were led to believe that the normal schools were not essentially necessary institutions, and that they were, in some points of view, dangerous. Consequently they proposed, not to suppress them, but to recruit the

teachers from a certain number of pupil-teachers, who were to receive their training in the best communal schools. This plan has not succeeded well. The majority of the normal schools have been retained, and number (1865) seventy-six, while there are only twenty-four pupil-teacher schools, scattered through the departments of the High Alps, the Arveyron, of the Charente, of the Drôme, of the Pas-de-Calais, of the Tarn, of the Varet of the Haute-Vienne.

But the organization of the normal schools has undergone important changes. The age of admission was (March 24, 1851) raised to eighteen, and the period of study extended from two to three years. The studies prescribed at the same time, are : morals, religion, reading, writing, French, ciphering, weights and measures, and religious singing ; the following are optional : arithmetic with practical operations, history and geography, physics and natural history applicable to common life, elementary instruction on agriculture, industry and hygiene, surveying, leveling, linear drawing, and gymnastics. The director is charged with the principal part of the teaching ; for the rest and for the surveillance, he is assisted by two masters, who live in the building. There is also a chaplain. Other teachers, except for singing, are not allowed.

The following changes have been made in the regulations of the schools :

The age of entering has been lowered to sixteen (July 2, 1866), because the choice of a profession is, in the country, made at a period earlier than eighteen, and the normal school would have had no pupils had not the rule been already dispensed with by the minister.

Secondly, the number of teachers and their salaries have been increased. There are now in many schools, three masters. The salaries of the directors are from 2,400 to 3,600 francs ; of the masters, from 1,200 to 2,000. These functionaries are divided into three classes of equal numbers. (September 4, 1863, and Oct. 1, 1866.)

Thirdly, the optional branches are taught during the second, or even the first year, and not delayed until the third, the pupils not being kept, as formerly, upon matters familiar to them, during two whole years.

Fourthly, the normal schools have been associated in making such meteorological observations in their localities as they were considered capable of, as hail, snow, rain, winds, water-spouts, and hurricanes. Their observations are to be transmitted to the imperial observatory. (Aug. 13, '64.)

Fifthly, the limits of the musical teaching have been defined, and instruction of this sort is given during the whole three years, five hours per week being allotted to lessons in music and elementary singing, no instruments but the organ, the harmonium, and the piano. (Jan. 30, 1865.)

Finally, particular attention has been paid to the agricultural course. Most of the schools have a large piece of land attached, where the pupils are exercised in the ordinary culture of gardens and orchards, with the assistance and under the direction of a professor, who also imparts theoretical instruction. These exercises have been (Dec. 22, 1864) placed under the control of the general inspectors of agriculture, arranged for each of the three years of the course, and made obligatory (July 2, 1866).

Subjects and Methods of Instruction.

To the modifications introduced into the normal schools, corresponded the analogous changes in the system of teaching pursued in the primary schools. The law of 1850, like that of 1833, required morals and religion, reading, writing, cyphering, and weights and measures, to be taught. But while more precisely determining (article 23) the higher optional branches, it was silent upon the turn which ought to be given to primary instruction in particular localities, and seemed therefore to tacitly interdict such additions. Nevertheless, in several schools, the instructors, at the persuasion of the families, added to the course branches which they ought not to have touched, and in place of the usual lessons in arithmetic, linear drawing, and explanation of natural phenomena, they taught geometry, algebra, physics, chemistry, ornamental drawing, accounts, foreign languages, and even the elements of Latin. This transgression of bounds was particularly practised in the schools conducted by the religious corporations, as that at Passy, which in a few years became very flourishing, and government paid no attention to the complaints made against them by the teachers in the secular school, nay, it rather seemed disposed to encourage these developments of popular instruction. Furthermore, in article 9 of a law dating June 21, 1865, the former regulation was amended, and the teachers expressly authorized to add to the course drawing of ornaments and from models, the modern languages, and elementary geometry. This favorable disposition, cherished by both government and people, was of particular profit to agricultural studies, which have gradually spread, and are now pursued with more or less success in 577 schools in the department of the Meurthe, 803 in that of the Yonne, 286 in that of the Haute-Saône, 250 in that of the Meuse, 233 in that of the North, and in all, 5,572 schools. Besides, there are 26,220 schools with an adjoining garden, where the teachers find recreation and the pupils profit. Many have acquired sufficient skill in gardening to obtain medals in the competitions of the district. Wise efforts of the government have seconded these measures of private zeal. By a decree of February 11, 1867, a commission has been instituted, under the presidency of the Minister of Public Instruction, and of the Minister of Agriculture, Public Works, and Commerce, to investigate and propose the measures necessary to develop agricultural studies in the elementary schools, and in the adult schools of the rural districts.

The pupils were formerly exercised in spelling; now, as soon as they know the syllables, they are taught to read entire words; in writing, they are assisted as to the form, position, and slope of the letters, by many varied copies; and in history, geography, and even for arithmetic, the helps addressed to the eye have infinitely multiplied, from the pictures which are used in the children's asylums to represent the principal facts of sacred history, to immense tablets on which are figured all the essential parts of the metrical system.

Of the four modes of instruction recently in vogue, the individual and

the simultaneous, the mutual and the mixed; the mutual and individual have almost disappeared. Of the mutual system, in which the most capable and advanced pupils teach the classes, there were in 1837, 1,557, private and public; in 1840, only 1,057; in 1850, less than 600, and they are now so few that they have disappeared from the statistics. The individual system was practised in 1837 by 11,520 teachers of both sexes, public and private; in 1840, by 7,347; in 1843, by 3,172. The mixed method is the one almost exclusively used to-day, the children being divided in general into three divisions, according to their age and degree of instruction, all the pupils of one division receiving instruction at once. If there are any who are not able to take part in these classes, they are put under the charge of the best pupil in the school.

Vigorous and successful attempts have been made to banish idle subtleties from primary instruction, which render it fatiguing to the children and unexceptable to their parents, and to give it a simple and practical character. With this intent the following directions in substance were addressed by M. Rouland to the directors, August 20, 1857:

In religious instruction, the teacher ought to avail himself of the useful assistance of the *curé*, and confine his own teaching to the catechism and the gospel.

Sacred history ought to be presented under the form of a recital, making use of the biographies of those men whose history the pupils should be acquainted with, the recital being interrupted by such interrogations as will hold the attention.

Reading ought to be made an intellectual exercise, the first care being that the exercise be conducted in an easy and natural manner, and then that the pupil acquire the habit of taking note of all the words and of every thought. When a piece has been read, the teacher ought to re-read it, with the proper pronunciation, tone, and inflection. He ought to question the pupils upon the sense of particular phrases, and the orthography of particular words.

The object of the lessons in penmanship is not to form professors of calligraphy, nor to teach difficult feats with the pen, but to make the children write rapidly and legibly.

In grammar, metaphysical and abstract analyses ought to be avoided. Every child brings with him the unconscious habit of correctly using genders, numbers, and conjugations, and the object should be to cause him to do this intelligently instead of mechanically. Let the teacher read a clear and simple phrase, assure himself that the pupils have well grasped its sense, and then explain the part that each word takes in the construction of the phrase. Afterwards he can give the sentence out to be copied. Thus are combined a lesson in orthography and one in practical logic. This is the only sort of analysis allowed in these schools; being addressed at once to the sense and to the words, it is productive in good results, while when addressed only to the memory, it is a pure waste of time.

Those everlasting dictations, with the ambitious name of logical analyses, are to be avoided, as tending only to disgust the pupil with all that relates to the study of language, as is also all extensive nomenclature which is always illy understood; if possible, no grammar is to be used. Such memorizing of abstract formulas is useless for the future artisan, and is moreover unacceptable to his parents. Dictation exercises, wisely graduated, analysed with attention to the meaning of the phrases and of the words, and to the orthography, having for subject some historical fact,

some useful thought, a family letter, a *memoire*, an account of an affair; such ought to lie at the root of the course of instruction in language pursued in the primary schools.

The lessons upon arithmetic ought to be directed to the cultivation of the intellect, while a practical turn should be given to the problems, the teacher drawing them from the conditions of real life. "Thus science becomes a kind of popular logic."

In geography, the point of departure should be the village, canton, *arrondissement*, or department, connecting with the geographical lessons hints upon the historical, administrative, industrial, and agricultural facts connecting themselves with the places treated of.

This course, not calculated indeed to form *savants*, but useful workmen, was again recommended by M. Duruy, October 7, 1866:

The questions in grammar must be reduced to certain simple and short definitions and fundamental rules, illustrated by examples; as the intelligence of the children expands, they should be taught beautiful passages taken from French literature, and made to understand at first the meaning of the whole, and then the fine shades of the meaning of the different words; and at a later period the connection of the ideas, the inversions, and even the licenses of genius, should be noted, and more attention be paid to the logical character of the passages than to all that rubbish of abstractions and formulas with which the memory is so often loaded without profiting the intelligence. L'Homond said, twenty-five years ago, "Metaphysics do not answer the needs of the child, and the best elementary book is the voice of the master, who varies his lessons and the manner of presenting them, according to the needs of those whom he addresses." The best method is that which most exercises, without fatiguing the children; that which, while it trains their memory, charges it only with things useful to be remembered; that which presents them no abstract rule in its isolation, but makes them comprehend its utility by a proper application; in short, that method which best teaches them to understand.

By the law of June 21, 1865, the geography and history of France were added to the obligatory course of primary instruction.

Books are as important in the great work of education, as teachers, and efforts have been made, therefore, to connect libraries with the schools, particularly with those in the country. The system was organized by a decree of M. Rouland, dating June 1, 1862. The books are the property of the commune, but are placed under the care of the teachers and in the rooms of the school. The choice of them is confided to the primary inspector and the academy inspector.

They comprise two classes of books; 1, the classics, reading-books, class-books, and arithmetics, to be lent to poor pupils gratuitously, and to others for a small sum; 2, books of general reading. The books included in this last class are furnished by the Minister, or by the general council, or from private gifts, or by other means peculiar to individual cases.

There were, January 1, 1865, 8,928 school libraries, possessing 982,516 volumes, being 677,107 class-books, and 305,409 books of general reading for adults and families. In the year 1864, 179,267 volumes were lent out.

Infant Asylums and Schools.

(10.) Mademoiselle de Pastoret attempted the formation of asylums as early as 1808, but the attempt was not crowned with success until 1827,

when M. Cochin secured an establishment of this sort to the twelfth arrondissement of Paris. In 1837, there were 261 in 172 communes, receiving 29,514 children; in 1840, 555; 1843, 1,489; 1848, 1,861; 1850, 1,735.

The decree of May 16, 1864, placed them under the patronage of the Empress, and created at the Ministry of Public Instruction a central committee of patronage for the propagation and superintendence of these asylums. This committee put forth, in 1855, a decree regulating all matters connected with these asylums, as to the age, pay, and required qualifications of those having charge of them.

The asylums are public and private, receiving and caring for the moral and physical development of children of both sexes from two to seven years of age. The instruction given consists of the first principles of religion, of reading, mental arithmetic, and linear drawing, the manual occupations and other matters appropriate to this age; the singing of hymns; moral and physical training.

The rooms are situated on the ground floor; they are floored and well lighted, if possible on both sides, with moveable windows. The allotted space gives to each child at least two cubical feet of air. Near by is a covered yard where the meals and exercise are to be taken. No asylum is opened until the academical inspector has ascertained that these conditions are complied with, and no child is admitted without a medical certificate of vaccination and freedom from contagious disorders. They are subject to regular weekly or semi-weekly medical inspection, and in every academy there is an inspectress, paid by the government, to inspect all the public or private asylums in that academy. Besides, there are two delegates connected with the central committee, who go where they are called.

The asylums are under the immediate charge of "*directrices*," who have lodging, 250 francs salary, and fees from those families who are able to pay.

There are 3,572 of these asylums, of which 1,088 are private; the public asylums attended by 344,388 children, the private by 74,380, in all, 418,768; of these, 307,556 pay no fees; 2,608 private and public, with 328,460 children, are directed by religious orders.

We will now give the sums expended at different periods for education. By the state, were expended: in 1816, 50,000 francs; 1829, 100,000; 1830, 300,000; 1831, 700,000; 1832, 1,000,000; 1834, 1,500,000; 1835, 1,726,196; 1838, 1,933,427; 1841, 2,381,868; 1844, 2,898,930; 1847, 2,959,587; in 1848, 4,020,280 francs; 1850, 5,945,990; 1862, 6,591,060.

But after 1848, we have statistics concerning the amount expended for education by the communes and by families. This, with the sums expended by the state, makes a total, in 1848, of 37,874,928 francs; 1852, 47,727,371; 1856, 48,181,838; 1860, 62,505,127; 1865, 73,399,582,—not including amount paid in 16,349 private schools, attended by 958,928 children.

Among the items of expenditure, are salaries of teachers, 46,137,709 fr. Rent of school-houses and asylums, 3,234,164 fr. Repairs of same, and expenses of printing for rewards in boys' or mixed schools, 2,298,565 fr. Inspection of schools and asylums, 1,040,488 fr. Normal schools and courses, 3,700,106 fr. Pensions to old teachers, 828,442 fr. Extraordinary expenses for buildings, 14,561,128 fr.

IV. SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

(1.) General organisation of the *lycées*. (2.) Financial régime and material situation. (3.) Composition and salaries of the professors and teachers (4.) Programmes of studies. (5.) Special secondary instruction. (6.) Communal colleges. (4.) *Agrégés*.

(1.) The existing organization of secondary instruction in France dates from the law of May 11th, 1802. The central schools founded since 1795 in each department, had contributed to raise the higher studies and national education from the depression into which they had fallen. But these schools, which had neither boarders nor interior discipline, and whose instruction included the higher parts of literature and the sciences, answered but very imperfectly the object of their institution and the wishes of families. The evident interests of society called for an organization less defective, stronger, and more complete. Between the special schools, like those of law and medicine which must represent high instruction, and the primary schools intended to spread among all classes the first elements of knowledge, the legislation of the year 1802 aimed to found intermediate establishments, lyceums and secondary schools, (called since *communal colleges*,) in which the youth of the country, lodged in residences, and subjected, as in the ancient colleges, to austere discipline, might devote themselves to the studies which develop and strengthen the mental powers, and prepare them for the liberal professions.

In the lyceums the ancient languages, rhetoric, logic, ethics, and the elements of mathematics and physical sciences were taught. The number of professors was eight at least; but it could be increased, as well as the branches of instruction, according to the number of pupils.

The administration of each lyceum was confided to a *proviseur*, having under him a *censeur*, or supervisor of the studies, and a proctor or steward to manage the business affairs of the lyceum.

In their financial relations, the lyceums were at their origin what they are to-day, after half a century of existence,—establishments made self-sustaining with their own and the resources given to them by the law.

The buildings, furnished in some instances by the state, and in others by the municipalities, were in general chosen from those which had been formerly used in the service of public instruction.

The cities were obliged to provide each establishment with all the furniture, collections, and material aids of instruction necessary for 150 pupils.

The proper resources of each lyceum consisted in the fees for scholars, paid by the public treasury or by families. The average price had been fixed at 700 francs. Six thousand four hundred boarders were to be supported at the expense of the state. The government concluded that "to found literary and scientific institutions upon a solid basis, it was necessary to commence with classes of students, and not run the risk of filling the study-halls with professors only."

The receipts were appropriated as much to the expenses of food and

support of the national pupils, as to the salaries of the functionaries and professors, and the other expenses of the establishments.

The fixed salaries were arranged as follows :

Functionaries.	Lyceums of Paris.	Lyceums of 1st order.	Lyceums of 2d order.	Lyceums of 3d order.
Provisor, - - -	5,000 <i>fr.</i>	4,000 <i>fr.</i>	3,500 <i>fr.</i>	3,000 <i>fr.</i>
Proctor, - - -	3,000	2,000	1,600	1,400
Censor, - - -	3,500	2,500	2,000	1,500
Professor of 1st class,	3,000	2,000	1,800	1,500
Professor of 2d class, -	2,500	1,800	1,500	1,200
Professor of 3d class,	2,000	1,500	1,200	1,000
Usher, - - -	1,200	1,000	800	700
Master of Exercises,	900	800	600	500

From the amount paid by families there was a reserve of one-tenth, to form a common fund, which was divided among the professors, the censor, and the proctor, in proportion to their fixed salaries. They deducted also, for the benefit of each professor, two-thirds of the amount paid by the day pupils who attended his class. Finally, as to the provisors, the government allowed them a supplementary salary, calculated according to their fixed salary and their good administration.

The secondary schools taught the same branches as the lyceums, with less development and thoroughness. But the principal difference was, that those schools were at the charge of the cities, and they received no other subsidy from the state than the casual grant of a locality, the promise of free places for the most distinguished pupils, and gratuities for their most capable masters.

Such are the principal features of the administrative organization which secondary instruction had received from the hands of the First Consul, and which it has preserved almost intact for half a century. To-day we may say that this organization exists in its essentials; the numerous changes that have supervened have not altered its foundations.

We will speak in turn of the lyceums and the colleges, dwelling less upon their commencement than upon the vicissitudes which they have experienced in the course of the last twenty-five years. We will show successively the changes in their number, their population, their financial régime, the composition of their *personnel*, and especially in their programmes of studies.

(2.) At the time of the founding of the Imperial University, there were thirty-five lyceums included in the departments which form the present territory of France, except Savoy and Nice. In 1810 this number was increased to thirty-six by the creation of the lyceum of Avignon. The classes were frequented in 1809 by 9,068 pupils, day and boarding pupils, of whom, 4,199 were free; in 1811, by 10,926 pupils, 4,008 free; in 1813, by 14,492 pupils, 3,500 free. About 30,000 pupils were at the same time registered in the private schools, which seemed to testify that a large number of families had taken umbrage at the discipline of the colleges of the state. A tax, valued at the twentieth of the price of board, was levied upon the

pupils of each establishment, public or private. This tax gave an annual total of about 1,200,000 francs, which were deposited in the treasury of the university.

Under the Restoration the lyceums took the name of *royal colleges*. At Paris, on the site of the ancient college of Harcourt, was erected the College of Saint Louis; in the departments, those of Tournon, Tours, and the Puy. The number of pupils increased perceptibly; there were 15,087, day and boarding, in 1829. The state then supported no more than 1,500 to 1,600; but, either to counterbalance the prejudice which the reduction in this respect had caused against the royal colleges, or to aid them in supporting the enormous expenses under which they were sinking, they were allowed, dating from 1817, an annual subsidy of 812,000 francs from the funds of the public treasury.

The monarchy of July, after the example of the Restoration, created royal colleges in several cities which till then had had only a communal college. Thus were established, from 1830 to 1847, the royal colleges of Auch, Bourbon-Vendée, Bastia, Saint Étienne, Angoulême, Laval, Mâcon, la Rochelle, Chaumont, Lille, Saint Omer, Périgueux, Alençon, and Vendôme. The number of these establishments was thus increased to fifty-four. They were attended, in 1847, by 23,207 pupils, that is, by 8,000 more than in 1829. The credit for free pupils was found reduced to 700,000 francs: but the subsidy of the state to the royal colleges had just reached the sum of 1,500,000 francs. University fees no longer existed; they had been abolished by the law of June 9th, 1844, dating from the 1st of January following.

As to the *personnel* of instructors, their situation had been ameliorated. The fixed portion of their emoluments had not increased, it is true, since, by virtue of the statutes of the year 1802, the salary of the provisors continued to vary from 3,000 to 5,000 francs, according to the class to which they belonged; that of the censors, from 1,500 to 3,500 francs; that of the professors of different orders, from 1,000 to 3,000 francs. But, on one side, the casual and variable portion of the emoluments, which was levied upon the scholars' fees, had increased in a notable manner with the number of pupils; on another, certain pecuniary advantages had been accorded to the professors who could count five years of service in the same college. Finally, several offices had been advanced from the third class to the second, and from the second to the first; which was for the titular professors an increase of salary. We do not speak of the regulations which assured a retiring pension to the old servants of the university. These regulations, conceived in the most benevolent spirit, had been arranged in such a manner that the functionary who had served thirty-eight years, obtained as a pension the total amount of his fixed salary; and that one who was infirm, could after ten years of service, obtain two-tenths of this salary; after fifteen years, three-tenths; after twenty years, four-tenths; after twenty-five years, the half. The maximum of pensions was otherwise fixed at 5,000 francs.

After the revolution of February, 1848, the royal colleges lost their name, and resumed that of lyceums. Circumstances were not favorable to the development of their prosperity; therefore it declined rapidly. From 1847 to 1849, the number of pupils fell from 23,000 to 20,000, from the inevitable effect of the general uneasiness, and the loss of fortune experienced by many families. The following year it decreased still more, under the influence of the law granting liberty of instruction, and the great competition which the colleges met from private institutions. The amount of annuities and bills paid by families, was maintained in 1848, at 6,204,693 francs 68 centimes; but it decreased in 1849, to 5,901,226 francs 16 centimes; in 1850, to 5,792,052 francs 63 centimes; in 1851, to 5,229,319 francs 24 centimes. The receipts being less, it was necessary to reduce the expenses, and to withdraw from the professors the advantages which they had acquired under the preceding régime. The increase which had been granted in 1829, to professors counting five years of service, was suppressed, first by the decree of the 29th December, 1850, as having been deducted from an overplus of receipts that did not exist. A short time afterwards, another decree, of the 30th January, 1851, suspended the advantages accorded to the divisionary *agrégés* and to the ushers. The indemnifications for expense of supply, granted up to that time for the service of the national guard and the jury, and the donations of linen in favor of the provisors, censors, almoners, and stewards, were also suppressed. The strictest economy was practised by the superior administration, and recommended to all its agents, as a necessity resulting from the poverty of resources, and their more and more precarious character.

Notwithstanding the misfortunes of the times, two new lyceums were erected, in 1858 at Saint Brieuc, and in 1850 in the city of Mans.

It was impossible, however, that the state, to the prejudice of its most manifest interests, should abandon the *lycées* to themselves, and make no effort to restore their ruined prestige and their compromised fortune. The instruction given by the lyceums is undoubtedly not addressed to the most numerous part of the population, those who live by the labor of their hands; but it moulds what are called the enlightened classes. And who can mistake the influence of these classes on the rest of the nation? They communicate to it in time their good qualities and their vices, their good or bad inclinations; as M. Thiers said in a memorable report, (on the proposed law of secondary instruction, July 13, 1844,) "they form the entire people by the contagion of their ideas and their sentiments." The first impressions they receive, the education that is given them, therefore, can never be treated by the state with indifference. Even when the state, having given up the monopoly of secondary instruction, has opened broadly the way to all competitions, it is its duty to watch over the public schools, to secure them resources proportioned to their needs, to listen to the wishes of the country in regulating the programme of their studies—in a word, so to act, that discipline and instruction may be equally flourishing in them, that these schools may secure the confidence of families, that the number of

their pupils may increase, and that their professors, better remunerated and happy in the consideration with which they are surrounded, may experience themselves, and inspire in their pupils, sentiments of gratitude and respect to the government.

Hence it was, that, as soon as quiet and security began to dawn on the country, the constant occupation of the ministry of public instruction was to repair the injuries caused by the troubles to the prosperity of the *lycées*, and to enable them to bear with advantage the competition of private institutions. The series of measures taken to attain this end is long and complicated, and we shall give only the most important.

To repair the damaged finances of the *lycées* it was necessary at once to rearrange the prices of board and school-fees charged to families. This price had not varied for half a century, and nowhere was it proportioned to the actual expenses of the establishments. Thus, to sustain the lycées of Paris, which seemed to unite all the conditions of wealth, it was necessary to raise each year about 265,000 francs on the subsidy received from the government. It had been calculated that at the lyceum Louis le Grand, the most flourishing of all the lycées, each boarding pupil cost 1,013 francs 69 centimes for his instruction and board, and paid only 1,000 francs; that each day pupil cost 181 francs 67 centimes, and paid only 100 francs.

Before 1789, in the colleges of the university of Paris, instruction, it is true, was given gratuitously. But different times had introduced different customs and different laws. Families did not ask for gratuitous secondary instruction, and it could not have been reëstablished, in the state of the country, without utterly bankrupting the finances of the *lycées*.

After having taken the advice of the council of public instruction, the government therefore did not hesitate to issue a decree increasing in quite a large proportion the expense of board charged to boarding pupils, and that of instruction paid by day pupils. The new regulation did not establish a uniform price; the terms were wisely graduated, in one part according to localities, and in another according to the division to which the pupils belonged. They were higher in Paris than in the provinces; in populous commercial and rich cities, than in poor localities; for the pupils in rhetoric and special mathematics, than for those in grammar. We may judge of them by the following details, in which we have kept in view the most recent changes in the decree of the 16th of April, 1853.

At Paris, in the elementary division, the terms for boarding amount to 1,000 francs; for instruction, to 150; in the division of grammar, the terms for boarding, to 1,100 francs, for instruction, 200 francs; in the superior division, for boarding, 1,200 francs, for instruction, 250; in the class of special mathematics, for boarding, 1,500 francs, instruction, 250.

At Lyons, in the elementary division, the expenses of boarding amount to 850 francs, instruction, 120; in the division of grammar, for boarding, 900 francs, instruction, 150; in the superior division, boarding, 950 francs, instruction, 200; in the class of special mathematics, boarding, 1,000 francs, instruction, 250.

At Douai, in the elementary division, the expenses of boarding amount to 750 francs, instruction, 100; in the division of grammar, boarding, 800 francs, instruction, 120; in the superior division, boarding, 850 francs, instruction, 160; in the class of special mathematics, boarding, 900 francs, instruction, 200.

At Nîmes, in the elementary division, boarding, 700 francs, instruction, 90; in the division of grammar, boarding, 750 francs, instruction, 110; in the superior division, boarding, 800 francs, instruction, 140; in the class of special mathematics, boarding, 850 francs, instruction 175.

Finally, to give a last example, taken from the colleges the least rich: at Bastia, in the elementary division, boarding, 450 francs, instruction, 50; in the division of grammar, boarding, 500 francs, instruction, 70; in the superior division, boarding, 550 francs, instruction, 90.

Under the liberty of instruction which had just been inaugurated for secondary schools, it was to be feared that the increased expense would keep away from the schools of the State a certain number of children. To guard against this danger, the government lowered the terms in some lyceums near which there were rival establishments, offering instruction at a reduced price, and at the same time introduced useful ameliorations in the public schools, wisely conceived and resolutely carried out.

Thanks to the efforts of the superior administration, not less than to the marvelous development of public prosperity, pupils were seen crowding into the lyceums. In 1842, there were only 19,543; and down to 1866 there was a steady increase; in 1854, 21,623; in 1857, 26,118; in 1860, 27,372; in 1863, 30,669; in 1865, 32,630; in 1866, 34,442.

We have seen that the total amount from the bills for boarding and instruction, fell in 1851, to 5,229,319 francs. The same receipts rose progressively: in 1854, to 6,446,626 francs 32 centimes; in 1857, to 9,119,159 francs 49 centimes; in 1860, to 10,681,698 francs 42 centimes; in 1863, to 12,518,327 francs 47 centimes; in 1865, to 13,160,185 francs 8 centimes.

Thus the resources proper of the lyceums, those depending annually upon the confidence of families, have increased about eight millions francs since 1852. To the amounts preceding let us add: (1,) the subsidy of the state, which to-day exceeds 1,800,000 francs; (2,) that of the departments and communes, which amounts to about 250,000 francs; (3,) the imperial grants, 868,000 francs; (4,) the departmental grants, 550,000 francs; (5,) the receipts of order, 1,600,000 francs; (6,) some arrears of revenues, rents, and other revenues, 750,000 francs;—a total of nineteen to twenty millions of annual revenues from all sources received in 1866, by the *lycées*, and appropriated to their expenses.

While in nearly every portion of the empire the resources of these institutions were increased, their number was also enlarged, and their internal organization improved. Twenty-four new *lycées* were established in as many large cities, from 1851 to 1868. Following the example set by a private institution in Paris, (*Saint Barbe*), in removing the younger pupils

into a separate establishment in the country, the government founded a similar school for seven hundred young children of the lower classes of the *lycée*, in the park of Vamez, near Paris, and encouraged similar enterprises in Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, and Montpellier. Besides inaugurating this policy of reducing the number of classes, and increasing the age of the pupils of the city *lycées*, a great work has been done in improving the structures, ventilation, heating, furniture, and equipments generally, of these establishments, at an expense of many millions of francs. Every new institution must provide the apparatus of illustration and manipulation, from a list drawn up by a scientific commission, and every *lycée* has now a library of reference, adapted to each class of pupils, both in the preparation of lessons, and for general reading in leisure hours, under the direction of the master in charge.

Gymnastics, the elementary régime, and in general, all that can contribute to the development of the physical forces of youth, received in a special manner the solicitude of the Minister of Public Instruction. So a decree, which dates back to the administration of M. Fortoul, (1854,) declares, "that gymnastics form part of the education of the lycées of the Empire, and that they are the subject of regular instruction, which is given at the expense of the establishments." In some lycées they have established covered gymnasiums. It was also under the administration of M. Fortoul, that a commission was instituted to examine, in the triple point of view of quality, quantity, and preparation, the diet of the three boarding lycées of the city of Paris, and to propose all the improvements of which this diet might be susceptible. Upon the advice of this commission, the minister decided that the weight of the meat cooked, boned, and prepared, delivered to each pupil, should be regulated as follows: for the large ones, 70 grammes apiece per meal; for the middle size, 60 grammes; for the small ones, 50 grammes. In the course of these later years, some complaints having led to the fear that these quantities were not sufficient, they were increased by special decisions in a certain number of lycées. Finally, in order to have an intelligent view of all questions which interest the health and comfort of the pupils, M. Duruy, in 1864, created a central commission of hygiene. Local commissions, established at the seat of each of the academies, are charged with studying the same questions, in view of the special wants and particular conveniences of the different lycées which form part of the academic jurisdiction.

(3.) While important works of construction and restoration were being executed in the lycées, their furniture being renewed and completed, the diet and other conditions of good health in the pupils the object of the most vigilant care, the government did not forget the professors, and used a portion of its resources to ameliorate their condition.

The decree of the 16th of April, 1853, had regulated the salaries of functionaries of the lycées as follows:—*Professors*: at Paris, 6,000 francs; in the lycées of the departments, 4,000, 3,500, and 3,000 francs. *Censors*: at Paris, 3,500 francs; in the departments, 2,500, 2,200, and 2,000

francs. *Almoners*: at Paris, 3,500 francs; in the departments, 2,500, 2,200, and 2,000 francs. *Stewards*: at Paris, 3,000 francs; in the departments, 2,000, 1,800, and 1,600 francs. *Professors*: at Paris, 3,000, 2,500, and 2,000 francs; in the departments, 2,000, 1,800, 1,700, and 1,600 francs.

By a happy innovation, often demanded in the interest of the service, these salaries were attached to the person, and not to the office nor to the residence, so that in the most humble post, and without sundering the ties which bound him to a locality, each professor could receive the advance to which he might be entitled by his good services.

Nine-hundredths of the price paid by each boarder, and five-tenths of the price paid by each day pupil, composed the sum to be divided among the censor and the professors, as incidental emolument. The provisors and the stewards could, on their side, obtain a supplementary allowance, equal for the former, to the half, and for the latter, to the quarter, of their normal salary. If the large number of pupils made it necessary to divide a class, the subdivision was given to an associate professor, who did not share in the incidental emolument, and who received only a fixed salary of 2,500 francs in Paris, 1,800, 1,600, 1,400, and even 1,200 francs, in the departments. Only 1,200 francs were given to those who, in consequence of the vacancy of a chair, had charge of classes before obtaining the title of *agrégé*.

In the view of the minister who invented it, this last combination had for its object to diminish the number, and consequently to increase the emoluments of the functionaries of each lyceum among whom were divided the sums deducted from the amounts paid for board and other school expenses. It was favorable to the old professors, and to all those who had obtained a regular and defined title. But unanimous complaints soon showed that a sufficient remuneration had not been given to that large class of laborious masters whom circumstances obliged to content themselves with the modest position of associate professor, or one simply in charge of classes. So, in the first months of his ministry, (1857,) M. Rouland solicited from the Emperor the authority to give to the associate professors, allowances which raised their emoluments to 3,000 and 4,000 francs in the lyceums of Paris; to 2,000, 1,800, and 1,600 francs, in the lyceums of the departments. A uniform salary of 2,000 francs was given to all the *chargés de cours*. Even this modest increase of compensation, greatly appreciated by those interested, absorbed annually the sum of 114,000 francs.

In 1858 M. Rouland profited by an increase of 110,000 francs granted by the law of finances, to realize a new and generous reform. The associate professors took the name of *chargés de cours*, and when they were aggregated, that of division professors, (*professeurs divisionnaires*.) The division professors and the *chargés de cours*, were admitted to a share in the incidental emolument, independently of a fixed salary which varied from 1,200 to 1,800 francs in the lyceums of Paris and Versailles, and was 1,200 francs in the other departments. As the advantages given to the

chargés de cours and to the division professors were greatly prejudicial to the titular professors and the censors, who alone were admitted by the decree of the 16th April, 1853, to a share of the incidental allowance, their fixed salary was materially increased. The decree of the 26th June, 1858, thus regulated this salary : in the lycées of Paris and Versailles, for the censors, 5,000 francs ; for the professors of first, second, and third classes, 4,500, 4,000, and 3,500 francs ; in the other lycées, for the censors, 2,800, 2,600, and 2,400 francs ; for the professors, 2,400, 2,200, and 2,000 francs. The increase of the number of pupils having maintained the incidental allowance in the lycées of the capital at about 3,000 francs, we see that the titular professors of these lycées receive to-day, everything included, 7,500, 7,000, and 6,500 francs.

The ancient usages of the university allowed only one titular professor for each class ; yet it happened that by reason of the multitude of pupils, a class had to be divided, not into two, but into three and even four divisions. The Emperor, on the suggestion of M. Duruy, in 1863, decided that for two divisions there should always be one titular professor. The same decree increases to 1,500 francs the fixed salary of the *chargés de cours*, counting twenty years of service, and allows it to increase by successive augmentations, to 2,000 francs.

The least noticed, but not the least useful officers of the lycée, are the ushers, (*maîtres d'études*.) It would not be correct to say that the good education of the children rests exclusively upon them, as if the professors did not contribute to it largely ; yet we cannot deny that their frequent advice, and especially their constant presence, exercise upon the character of the pupil an influence which may be decisive. To ameliorate their situation, in order to raise them in the estimation of the pupils and the families, the decree of the 17th August, 1853, increased their prerogatives by charging them, not only with watching over the discipline, but with a share in instruction. Besides directing the labors of the pupils in the study halls, and to assure themselves of the correctness of the transcripts of the dictated texts, and of the manner in which the exercises were performed, they were to teach the elementary classes, and to supply the place of absent professors. This change of rôle was marked by a change of title, and they have since been called private masters, (*maîtres répétiteurs*.) To give them at the same time the means of acquiring the degrees which could open to them the university functions, by an ordinance of M. Rouland, in 1859, in each lycée, lectures were organized under the direction of the professors, to prepare the *maîtres répétiteurs* for the degree of licentiate of letters, or licentiate of sciences. Five hours at least are allowed them each class-day, for their personal labor. Besides the lectures for the licentiate, there are others by which the ushers can prepare themselves for the degree (*aggregation*) in grammar, and thus be promoted to censors of studies, provided they are licentiates and academical officers. In addition, their salaries, which still remain small, have been fixed at 800, 1,200, and 1,500 francs in the lycées of Paris ; 700, 1,000,

and 1,200 francs in the lyceums of the departments. After three years of experience, the ushers of the first class may receive an additional salary of 300 francs.

Such are the principal measures taken since 1852, either to ameliorate the material situation of the lyceums, or to increase the salaries of their professors and other officers. To appreciate the reforms made in the programme of studies, it is important to trace in some sort, in a pedagogical point of view, the history of the lyceums which we have just sketched in a purely financial point of view.

(4.) By the terms of the law of 1802, the lyceums were to teach the ancient languages, rhetoric, logic, moral philosophy, and the elements of mathematical and physical sciences. There were to be also, near and available for several lyceums, professors of modern languages. If we set aside this last regulation, the programme of 1802 will not differ materially from that of the old university. But the difficulty was, to distribute the subjects of instruction among the different classes so as to satisfy at once the special friends of science and letters.

In the lyceums under the Consulate and the first Empire, and in the royal colleges under the Restoration, sometimes the sciences and the languages are taught almost simultaneously, from the elementary classes as far as those of rhetoric and philosophy; sometimes the languages predominate, and if they do not absolutely exclude mathematics and philosophy, they crowd them over to the end of the whole course. But in general, the victory is of short duration. After a few years or months of disgrace, the partisans of scientific studies quickly assert their rights and again introduce them into the classes of the classics, and even into those of grammar, from which they had been banished.

By the statutes of the 4th September, 1821, all scientific lectures in the classes which precede philosophy, are suppressed, and these pupils must devote themselves to the exclusive study of the ancient languages and history. But five years afterwards, in 1826, the Council of the University, and M. de Frayssinous, then grand-master, partially reinstated the banished studies, declaring that many pupils left the college "without having acquired, in mathematics and natural philosophy, even the most elementary and indispensable knowledge."

During the next twenty years, the sciences, favored in general by public sentiment, encroached a little upon the domain of letters, when M. Cousin, having become minister in 1840, endeavored to confine them to the class of philosophy. But this attempt, although supported by the recommendation of the illustrious philosopher, was in vain. The following year, his successor in the ministry, M. Villemain, reestablished mathematical lectures in all the classes, beginning with the third. There were also created, or authorized, in a few royal colleges, preparatory scientific courses for candidates for the special schools of the government, such as the polytechnic, the school of Saint Cyr, the normal, and the forest school. In other respects all the parts of secondary instruction comprised

in the law of 1802, were successively developed. It is thus that, dating from 1838, instruction in modern languages, which had up to that time been optional and precarious, became obligatory. English and German were taught from the fifth class to that of rhetoric, in all the royal colleges, with the privilege of substituting Italian or Spanish for one of these two languages, in the colleges of the south.

Two facts were decisive then and now, in favor of the early and systematic study of the sciences; first, the necessity of a special preparation which only these studies could give, for candidates destined for the schools of the government; secondly, the prodigious development which the manufactures and commerce of France had made in a period of peace, and which demanded wider and more programmes of public instruction. In the last century, the man who knew most thoroughly these difficult and delicate subjects, president Rolland, advised and urged the universities to break through routine, and to suit their instruction to the varied vocations of youth, to the variety of their aptitudes, and the careers they are called upon to pursue. What a sanction has this advice received from experience! It is certain that for the last half-century, much more than at any other time, the schools of the state have been crowded with scholars, who were neither destined for the magistracy or the professorship, medical careers of literature, medicine, or even administration, but who were called to labor or superintend labor, in the work-shop, the counting-room, or the field, but whose parents wished for them instruction adapted to their probable condition and occupation. This diversity of condition, professions, and occupations, evidently supposes an analogous division in public education. Nevertheless, in promoting this change, it was important to maintain those studies which experience had proved to be the best preparation for certain established professions, and at the same time to provide another instruction, more appropriate to industrial, commercial, and agricultural vocations.

In consequence of the law of the 28th June, 1833, upon primary instruction, there were established in several cities, and even joined to some royal colleges, superior primary schools, in which instruction was not limited to reading, writing, and arithmetic, but related also to subjects which the legislature had permitted to be restricted or extended, according to the wishes of the people and the resources of the locality, such as the geography and history of France, grammar, drawing, and the elements of the sciences in their application to practical life. These schools seemed destined to render great service, and fill a void in the system of public education; but with few exceptions, they were not properly sustained. Their legal designation offended the vanity of many parents, because it would be said that their son attended only the primary school.

In the royal colleges, the classes of mathematics began to be attended by many pupils from their grade of public schools, who had not pursued the classics, and consequently understood nothing of Latin, and scarcely anything of French. In order to enable these pupils to acquire some literary

ideas, there were established special courses of French rhetoric, with reference to translation and style, to description of the more prominent events of history, and elementary notices of moral philosophy. In general, these courses were confided to masters of real talent and solid learning. Yet they were not successful. The audience, inclined to scientific studies, gave only indifferent attention to the literary exercises; often even their disregard of discipline disturbed the good order of the classes.

In 1847 M. de Salvandy attempted an important reform; he divided the courses of the royal colleges into three branches; to the classical and scientific studies he added a third branch, under a name till then quite new in the language of the University of France, namely, *special instruction*, reserved for pupils who were destined for commerce or manufactures. The studies embraced three years, and were divided as follows:

First year. Mathematics; natural philosophy and chemistry; physical geography; linear and ornamental drawing; Latin; history and geography; modern languages.

Second year. Mathematics; natural philosophy and chemistry; geometrical mechanics; natural history; Latin; French literature; history and geography; drawing; modern languages.

Third year. Mathematics; descriptive geography; natural philosophy and chemistry; machines; natural history; drawing; French rhetoric, comprising exercises in translation, analysis and composition in French; modern languages; practical lessons in accounts, commercial law, and agricultural economy.

In a circular addressed to the rectors, the minister remarked: "He wished the instruction solid, in order to render it efficacious. The object is not to offer a sort of asylum to children who have neither aptitude nor willingness, but to develop faculties which the pure simple study of the ancient languages would leave inactive, and which need other aliment. The university does not intend to make a distinct, or an inferior college, within a normal one, but to organize for different characters and careers, two systems of lessons, which will lend each other mutual support. Both have an aim equally serious, equally elevated." The plan thus marked out by the minister was tried. Special instruction was organized in several colleges, and in general with happy results. Not only was it received with favor by families, but pupils who thoroughly mastered the course, left the college with a precious capital of knowledge which proved highly useful to them in commerce and manufactures.

In 1848 and 1849, the programmes arranged by M. de Salvandy, underwent some amendments, principally to extend the historical instruction, which changed neither their designs nor original organization.

In pursuance of article 62 of the law of March 15, 1850, which ordained that there should be instituted "special juries for professional instruction," the minister, M. de Parieu, formed, under the presidency of M. Thénard, a commission charged with preparing a system for special or professional instruction, appropriate to lyceums and communal colleges. This commission was "to designate the degree of knowledge required of pupils who desired to pursue this instruction; to arrange the programme of studies for each year included in it; to seek the best means of testing the knowl-

edge of the pupils who had finished the course of professional studies; and, finally, to prepare the details of the examination to which the candidates for the diploma decreed by law, should be subjected."

But already, (in 1847-8,) public instruction, like the country itself, had entered a crisis, which in the department of secondary schools at once diminished their resources and the attendance of pupils, and demanded a change in the subjects, order, and methods of instruction. To meet these demands, the minister, M. Fortoul, devised a new plan of studies, of which the following are the principal features :

According to their age and the degree of their knowledge, the pupils of the lyceums were to be divided into three divisions, the elementary, grammar, and superior divisions.

The exercises of the elementary division comprised : reading and recitation, writing, orthography, French grammar, the first principles of Latin grammar, geography, sacred history, explanation of the *epitome historiae sacrae*, the rudiments of arithmetic, and linear, pencil, and pen drawing.

After an examination on the elementary course, the pupils passed into the grammar division, which embraced the three years of the sixth, fifth, and fourth classes. Each of these years was devoted, under the direction of the same professor : (1,) to the grammatical study of the French, Latin, and Greek languages ; (2,) to the study of the geography and history of France, and arithmetic.

Before leaving the fourth class, the pupils underwent a special examination, (*examen de grammaire*,) the result of which, if successful, was stated in a special certificate, which was indispensable to admittance into the superior division.

The superior division consisted of two sections, one literary, the other scientific. The instruction of the former gave access to the faculties of letters and law. That of the second prepared for the commercial and industrial professions, for the special schools of government, and the faculties of the sciences and medicine. Each pupil entered one or the other section, according to his preparation, and the career to which he was destined.

The course of studies embraced four years, which corresponded to the third and second classes of rhetoric and philosophy. But philosophy had lost its name, and a part of its domain. It was reduced, under the title of *logic*, to the analysis of the processes of the understanding in the different kinds of knowledge ; it was also understood, that the professor should devote a part of the class-time to the revision of the classical authors required for the baccalaureate of letters. Certain branches, as French, Latin, history, geography, the modern languages, and logic, were taught in common to the pupils of the section of letters and those of the section of sciences. Each section had also its particular instruction. That of the section of letters was devoted to the thorough study of Latin and Greek ; it was completed by the *ensemble* of the scientific principles included in all liberal education.

The instruction of the section of sciences comprised: arithmetic, algebra, geometry and its applications, rectilinear trigonometry, cosmography, natural philosophy, mechanics, chemistry, and natural history. In the most flourishing lyceums they had established courses of special mathematics, for pupils who were destined for the polytechnic or the normal school. The courses prepared, after a full understanding between the ministry of public instruction and the delegates of the ministry of war, of the navy, and of the finances, were found in perfect harmony with those of the examinations for admission to the special schools. A peculiar feature of the new plan of studies, was the attendance of all the pupils, from the elementary classes to that in logic, on the lectures on religion, given regularly by the chaplain or under his direction, according to a programme prepared by the diocesan catholic bishop. Similar attendance was required from the pupils belonging to other creeds, on religious instruction given by authorized teachers in each creed.

Such, in its principal features, was the change inaugurated by M. Fortoul, and to which his name is still attached. Since the founding of the university, the instruction of the secondary schools had never undergone so thorough and so complete a remodeling. Opinions were very much divided as to the practical value of the new measures. Many excellent minds rejoiced to see substituted for partial, uncertain and unfruitful attempts, a system complete in all its parts, which developed equally the study of science and of letters, and which seemed to have affected the separation of these two kinds of culture, only to unite them in a better, so that the pupil in literature should not remain ignorant of the elements of the sciences, and that, reciprocally, the pupil in sciences should not leave the lyceum, without having acquired a solid historical and literary knowledge. But on another side, loud complaints arose against the establishment even of these two branches, which were to compose the superior division of the lyceums, and against the formidable obligation imposed upon the children, of deciding, on leaving the fourth class, that is, at the age of fourteen, the profession to which their acquisitions and tastes inclined them. In order to better mark the necessary alliance of the sciences and letters, it seemed wise to assemble, at certain hours, the pupils of the two sections, and have them participate in the same instruction. But men of experience feared, that the simultaneous presence, in the same class, of two audiences so diverse, would be injurious to good order as well as to the studies; and the result justified this fear. We will not speak of the bitter regrets of the university at the loss of an instruction that it loved, that of philosophy; it could not think that this forfeiture was merited, and it was astonished, that those high and noble studies, which formerly served as a crown to classical education, should have been degraded and mutilated on account of the errors of a few professors. As to the sciences themselves, which seem to be the most favored by the new plan of studies, the value of the methods recommended for their instruction was doubted, and good judges in these matters predicted, that by simplifying the dem-

onstrations in mathematics, and aiming, in natural philosophy, so exclusively at the applications, they would injure the development of the true scientific mind.

M. Fortoul was taken away suddenly, in the strength of age and talent, before having confirmed the institutions which he believed he had founded for a long existence. Only after his death were the defects of his work seen; its excellencies were forgotten, and also the patient and courageous efforts which it had cost the author, the services which it had rendered to public instruction in difficult emergencies.

The successor of M. Fortoul, the honorable M. Rouland, was wisely slow in entering upon new changes. Those which he adopted bore upon particular regulations, which could be separated from the rest. There was nothing modified in the plan but the interior arrangements, the general proportions and aspect of the structure remained the same. It is thus that, dating from 1857, the study of Latin commenced in the eighth class, and that of Greek in the sixth, that is to say, a year earlier than by the regulation of 1852. Comparative grammar ceased to be taught in the fourth. The history of France was removed from the division of grammar to the superior division. The programmes of historical instruction were entirely remodeled.

In 1859 a more considerable change was made. At Paris, and in the lyceums of the departments, where the number of pupils in the third, second, and rhetoric classes, allowed the formation of two divisions, the pupils of the section of literature were not united with those of the section of sciences, except for history and geography. For all other subjects, the two sections, henceforth separated, had each their particular instruction; a considerable change, which soon contributed to the interest of the classes, to good order, and emulation.

On the accession of M. Duruy to the ministry of public instruction, great modifications were made in the regulations of the studies which the lyceums had received in 1852. Classical instruction was placed on a broader basis, and special secondary instruction was also established. He at once restored the old name to the study of philosophy. Soon new programmes were prepared, in which reappeared, under its own name and form, moral and religious instruction, which was only approached in the programmes of 1852 in an episodic and incidental manner, by which philosophy was found reduced to logic. Into these programmes entered as formerly, a few summary ideas upon the principal ancient and modern schools which have contested with each other the domination of the human mind.

As to the general direction of the course, it remained what it had always been in the University of France, as can be readily seen by the text-books used; as for instance, in Greek and Latin literature and antiquity: the *Gorgias* of Plato, the *De Officiis* of Cicero, and the *Epistolae* of Seneca; among the moderns, some portions of Pascal, *Discours sur la méthode* of Descartes, the *Logique de Port Royal*, the *Traité de la*

connaissance de Dieu et de soi même of Bossuet, and the *Traité de l'existence de Dieu* of Fénelon. Now encouraged, and now unjustly decried, philosophy has had, in France, diverse fortunes in the public schools; but that which had never been seen in the most renowned lyceums, was, that young philosophers should be familiar with the events of their time, that they should have before their eyes the picture of the manners, laws, institutions, triumphs and reverses of existing society; that, on the point of leaving college and entering into direct relations with this society, they should learn to know it, in order to love and serve it the better. Such was the great deficiency in French secondary education, which M. Duruy attempted to fill, by placing contemporaneous history in the studies of philosophy.

In view of the complaints made by general inspectors and rectors, against the *bifurcation*, as it was called, introduced by the decrees of April 10, 1852, by which it was hoped to raise mathematics to an equality with literature by giving boys at the age of fourteen, when they passed into the superior division of the lyceums, his choice of either the division of science, or letters, and thus enable those who wished to become candidates for the polytechnic and other special schools of government, to take the mathematical division which led through algebra, geometry, chemistry, physics, drawing, rhetoric, and logic, to the baccalaureate of science—an arrangement, which because it was new, and had not proved its usefulness, was also not popular with parents, a decree was issued through the minister, (M. Duruy,) September 2, 1863, by which the separation of science and letters was discontinued.

As this radical change caused important modifications in the programmes of studies, they were all remodeled more or less, and, at the same time, simplified and strengthened. The classes in classics are, at present, restored; yet they are not exclusively devoted to literature, but include a series of lessons on all the elements of the sciences, of which no one in any career ought to be ignorant, and of which, having been begun in youth, any one may acquire, later in life, a more extended knowledge. A course of elementary mathematics, completed by exercises in literature and history, has been instituted in all the lyceums. This course follows the class in philosophy, and is addressed particularly to pupils, who, after having finished the classics, prepare themselves for the baccalaureate of sciences and the special schools of the government. Its method is exact and severe. As unfortunately it happens that candidates for the special schools do not finish the classics, some for want of time, others for want of patience and courage, it has been necessary to divide the course of elementary mathematics into two years. The first year is a preparation for the following: the pupils commence mathematics, and fill up as much as possible the deficiencies in their literary education. Those who possess sufficient knowledge, acquired without haste in the classes of rhetoric and philosophy, are exempted from this first year of studies, and pass immediately to the second year. These are, in general, the best pupils, the most

intelligent and laborious. The familiarity with letters and philosophic studies has contributed to form their judgment, and prepared them to better comprehend the abstractions of geometry and algebra.

As to modern languages, the minister (M. Duruy) in a circular to the rectors, of the 29th September, 1863, writes: "We should not fear to acknowledge that the study of modern languages has, up to the present time, produced very insufficient results. Our pupils, with very few exceptions, can neither speak nor write German or English; the most skillful only make an exercise or translation; they cannot indite a letter, still less follow a conversation." This sad state of things had its root far back in the very traditions of the university. The regulations of 1852 had in no wise remedied it. Far from this, contrary to the wise regulations of the former rules, they made the instruction in modern languages commence only in the third class,—that is, they postponed it to an age when the organs, half formed, are already less flexible and yield less easily than in childhood, to the pronunciation of a foreign idiom. The first step taken by the minister was to introduce the study of modern languages into the sixth class, and to make it obligatory upon the pupils of the grammar division, but optional for those of the superior division. He indicated at the same time, the method which appeared to him best adapted to this instruction. "Your pupils will need but little grammar; with the English language, generally none; but they will require much of oral exercise, because the pronunciation is the greatest difficulty to be overcome; exercises, also, upon the blackboard; passages prepared with care, well explained, which will illustrate all the grammatical rules, and which, learned by the pupils, will furnish them the words necessary for composing other phrases in the lessons which follow."

As all the modern languages cannot be taught at the same time, in each lyceum, they teach according to the advice of the academic council and the rector, the language which best suits the habits and needs of the locality. They learn German and English in the cities which have relations with Germany and England; Spanish, in the provinces bordering on the Pyrenees; Italian, in the departments on the Mediterranean; Arabic, at Algiers. At the end of each year, the best work is noticed by premiums; and the classes in English and German share in the annual competitions which take place among the lyceums. Finally a special order of *agrégation* has been instituted, by a decree of the 27th November, 1864, for the instruction of the modern languages. This measure is the complement of the preceding. It has proved the just importance constantly attached by the imperial government to the study of foreign languages, and its desire to render as much as possible this study more serious and more efficacious than it has heretofore been.

Two other branches, music and drawing, have been developed and strengthened. By a decree of January 30, 1865, instruction in music is made obligatory on all the lower classes to the fourth inclusive; it is optional for the pupils of the third class and those above. The obligatory

instruction includes the elementary principles of music and singing, as well as musical reading and writing, according to the notation at present in use among all civilized nations. The optional instruction may be extended to the elementary principles of harmony.

The importance of drawing, in a system of liberal education, had furnished under the administration of M. Fortoul, to the philosophic and felicitous pen of M. Ravaisson, the subject of a remarkable report.* This report had been followed by a ministerial decree, which made the study of drawing general in all the lyceums, commencing in the sixth class and extending from year to year to the end of the course. By the terms of this decree, all the models were to be selected from the master-pieces of art. In 1865 M. Ravaisson presented to the minister (M. Duruy) for his approbation, which was promptly given, the two first parts of a collection of models from modern and ancient artists, which, to use his own language, "disposed in a progressive order, and faithfully reproduced, offer for study and imitation, the *chefs d'œuvre*, in which sculpture, glyptics and painting have attained the highest degree of perfection, and which will be in art, what our instruction in letters and philosophy is, the reunion of the *chefs d'œuvre* of the Homers and the Platos, the Virgils and the Terences, the Descartes, the Bossuets, the Corneilles." To give to this branch an assured position in the system, a decree of January 31, 1866, approved by the minister of finances, extends to the teachers of drawing, the regulations which ensure to the other functionaries of public instruction, a retiring pension at sixty years of age and after thirty years of service.

By a provision in the law of March 15, 1850, "the council of public instruction must give its opinion on the books which may be introduced into the public schools, as well as those which ought to be forbidden in private institutions as contrary to morality, the constitution, and the laws." This provision was borrowed from the old rules, which reserved to the Council of the University the duty of admitting or rejecting text-books. But its execution was attended with serious difficulties. To secure a thorough scrutiny into the merits of competing books, the minister (M. Rouland) in 1858 instituted a special commission, composed of the inspectors general and seven persons designated by the minister, to examine the works whose adoption was solicited, and thus to facilitate the ultimate action of the Council. But this quasi delegation of authority was strongly objected to; and by decree of January 11, 1865, the system of approbation and authorization was changed to interdicting bad books, and allowing the free circulation of those that were not forbidden; and before any books could be forbidden, the opinion of the rector and inspectors of an academy was to be called for, by the academic council for books of secondary instruction, and by the departmental council for books of primary instruction. The deliberations of these two assemblies are submitted to

* Republished in *Barnard's American Journal of Education*, Vol. II., pp. 419-434.

the council of public instruction, which pronounces finally. The council continues also to give its opinion on the choice of class-books properly so called, that is to say, on the choice of works which serve as a basis for instruction, and which form, in some degree, an integral part of the plan of studies.

Down to 1864, the school exercises for the year terminated by a competition between the best pupils of the lyceums and colleges of Paris and Versailles. This practice dates from the last century, and was the gift of the ancient University of Paris to the University of France, inaugurated by Napoleon I. It tested the strength of the studies, and infused salutary emulation among the pupils, and even among the masters. By a decree of May 24, 1864, the minister (M. Duruy) extended these advantages to the whole of France, by instituting a competition among the pupils of the lyceums and colleges of each of the academies, those of Paris and Versailles excepted. This competition includes all the classes, and all grades of studies. Pupils who have obtained the first rank in the competitions of special mathematics, elementary mathematics, French dissertation, Latin discourse, and modern history, are called to another. This time, those who have come off victorious in the branches for which a reward of honor is instituted in the general competition of Paris, receive a great prize, called *prix de l'Empereur*. Several years have elapsed since the lists were opened, and each year the youth who frequent the lyceums of the departments, have seized with ardor the opportunity of displaying their talents and knowledge. The successive competitions have been remarkable in this, that the laureates of the provinces have more and more approached those who carried off the first crowns in the competitions between the lyceums of Paris and Versailles. The minister therefore justly concludes, that if the standard of studies has been raised at Paris, it has also been elevated in the other lyceums, and that the activity which reigns at the centre, has spread even to the extremities of the Empire.

(5.) While the old instruction in the classics has been the object of the most vigilant care, the new instruction, demanded for a long time by the unanimous wishes of the country, has received the particular attention of the government, and become organized in the law by the name of *secondary special instruction*.

In separating the superior division of the lyceums into two sections, (*bifurcation*), the minister (M. Fortoul) supposed that the studies of the section of sciences could be organized in such a manner as to retain all the pupils of very different abilities and vocations, to whom scientific knowledge was manifestly necessary, viz: (1,) the candidates for the baccalaureate of science; (2,) the candidates for the schools of the government; (3,) those who were destined for a commercial or a mechanical career. But the event very soon proved that those who are destined for commercial or mechanical occupations needed a particular instruction, more practical and less scientific than that which suited the future bach-

elors, or pupils of the polytechnic, the normal, and the forestry schools. It was necessary, therefore, to maintain or create in their favor, in spite of the new regulations, courses similar to those which M. de Salvandy had instituted in 1847, under the name of *special courses*. These courses were established in sixty-four lyceums, and in most of the communal colleges. In 1862 they numbered in the lyceums nearly 5,000 pupils, that is to say, about a sixth of all the secondary pupils. Their aim, however, was ill-defined, the programmes showed the strangest incongruities. As special instruction did not enter into the normal plan of secondary studies, it was rather tolerated with regret, than frankly approved by the government. One thing only was manifest to all unprejudiced minds, even in the university ranks, and this was the indispensable and urgent necessity of such instruction.

It was important to change this precarious state of things by an organization which should give satisfaction to the wishes of families and the needs of the country. With this aim the minister (M. Roulard) instituted in 1862, a commission, presided over by M. Dumas, an illustrious *savant*, who was at the same time devoted to the true interests of the university, and familiar with questions of commerce and manufactures. This commission elaborated a project, which was submitted to the Council of Public Instruction, and which that Council approved. In the mean time a new minister (M. Duruy) was appointed, who took up this project with enthusiasm, and having amended and completed the same, secured its approval by the Emperor and the Council of State, and also, after a full deliberation, the unanimous vote of the *corps législatif*.

By the terms of the first article of the law of June 21, 1865, secondary special instruction comprises moral and religious studies, the French language and literature, history and geography, applied mathematics, physics, mechanics, chemistry, natural history and their applications to agriculture and manufactures, linear drawing, commercial forms, and book-keeping. It may include also, one or more modern foreign languages, common principles of legislation, industrial and rural economy and hygiene, ornamental and geometrical drawing, vocal music, and gymnastics. Such instruction, it would seem, is wanting neither in solidity, extent, nor even in intrinsic dignity. In furnishing the mind with useful knowledge, it helps to form the heart. If its pupils study the history of Greece and Rome less than do those of the classics, they understand better the history and geography of France. If they do not know Greek, if they cannot explain the *Iliad*, nor the tragedies of Sophocles, they can read, in the original, *Paradise Lost*, the *Divine Comedy*, and the dramas of Shakespeare and Schiller. If the speculations of metaphysics are not familiar to them, they are fortified by solid moral and economic studies, against the seductions of subversive doctrines.

The programmes of secondary special instruction have been prepared with the greatest minuteness, by the minister, after consultation with the

most experienced and thoughtful educators.* They are accompanied by precise indications of the method suited to each study. The entire course lasts four years. The subjects are so grouped and divided, that at the end of each year the pupil finds himself possessed of valuable knowledge, answering, in some degree, to the many careers of practical life, and enabling him to enter, with special preparation, the one which he has chosen. These programmes are not inflexible and absolute, but can be developed or restricted, according to the needs of the localities. In the agricultural departments, greater prominence can and should be given to the portions which bear upon that pursuit, and in the manufacturing districts the scientific principles, suited to the industry of those cities, should receive most attention.

For the schools of special instruction, which depend upon the central ministry, the law has instituted a Superior Council of Improvement, composed of the mayor, the provisor or the principal, and a few members eminent in their respective vocations. This Council informs the administration upon the parts of the general programme which require to be extended or contracted. The local councils correspond with the Superior Council, which sits at Paris, and which shares with the minister the direction of the new instruction.

At the end of the course, the pupils appear before a jury to undergo an examination, at the end of which, if successful, they receive a diploma. This jury is composed of three members, appointed by the minister. The pupils of the private institutions are admitted to the examinations, like those of the state schools, and can obtain the same diploma.

A special diploma has been instituted for persons who may desire to open schools of special instruction. This diploma can only be obtained at the age of eighteen, after written and oral examinations, which include all the principal subjects of the course.

It was of special importance to find capable, learned, and experienced masters, to give the new instruction in the lyceums and communal colleges. The government provided for this in three ways: (1,) by creating the normal school of Cluny; (2,) by instituting a new *agrégation*; (3,) by insuring the present and future position of the professors who should have charge of the special courses.

The normal school of Cluny has proved its claims to recognition among the state institutions of established utility and scientific character. It is located in the old Benedictine abbey of that name, where are still existing grand memorials of piety, science, and toil, left by that learned and teaching order. The rich country that surrounds it exhibits in its varied scenery, all kinds of culture, prairies, vines, and woods. It is near the great

* These programmes, and other official documents relating to *enseignement secondaire spécial*, make a volume of the highest pedagogical value. The methods of instruction indicated by the Minister for the new secondary special schools, can be studied with great advantage by teachers of every class of schools, and especially of all which aim to prepare for practical careers without positive technical training.

industrial centres, Creuzot and Lyons, and not far from Saint Étienne and its mines. The government judged that it could not find in the empire a place more suitable for the instruction of the pupil-masters destined to develop industrial schools, nor a combination of accessories which better suggest and illustrate its own ideal, the intentions of the legislature, and the wishes of the country.

Seventy-two general councils have pronounced in favor of the new normal school, and that of Saône-et-Loire voted important subsidies for its installation. Its pupils are composed of candidates supported by the state, the departments, or the cities, and a few free boarders appointed on open competition, held after a preliminary examination to test their ability to pursue the course. Its corps of instruction consists of a director, a sub-director, a chaplain, a steward, seven professors, three *préparateurs*, and a chief gardener. In respect to funds, it is on the same footing with the lyceums; it has its own treasury, into which flow all the receipts, and which pays all expenses. Its graduates have proved, after brilliant examinations, their title to the new *agrégation* established for them.

By the decree of March 28, 1866, the position and rights of the functionaries of different ranks in the special courses have been guaranteed in an equitable manner. The *agrégés* who are not employed, and who are not responsible for their inactivity, receive 400 francs; the titular professors have a fixed salary of 2,000 francs at Paris and Versailles; 1,200, 1,500, and 1,800 francs in the departments. They share, also, in the casual emolument. The division professors and the *chargés de cours*, do not have this last advantage; but their fixed salary is 2,400 francs at Paris and Versailles, and 1,500 and 1,800 francs in the other lyceums. Similar arrangements have regulated the salaries of the elementary teachers, general supervisors, and ushers.

The organization of special instruction is still too recent to be judged by its influence on the class of families for which it was designed, or on the general education of the country. The law of June 21, 1865, and the acts which followed it, have been received thus far with the greatest satisfaction; the number of pupils who pursue the special courses in the lyceums, has risen from 5,000 to more than 8,000; and many communal colleges which were languishing, have been transformed into institutions of special instruction, and are now prosperous.

The lyceum founded at Mont-de-Marsan in 1865, was selected by the minister (M. Duruy) and aided to an unusual extent out of the budget of secondary instruction, to serve as a model for establishments of this kind, in which special instruction should be given on the largest scale, to the exclusion of the usual classical studies. From the start this lyceum has been overwhelmed with candidates from the whole country, in such numbers that the buildings which had been prepared could not accommodate them, and extensive additions have since been made.

The circular of the Minister of Public Instruction, addressed to the rectors, calling their attention to the programmes and other documents

which had been prepared to facilitate the inauguration of the new instruction, concludes as follows :

"I trust, M. le Recteur, that all these measures taken together, will definitely establish a system of secondary special instruction for the people. It is time we should make speed. In the peaceful, but redoubtable struggle, in which the various industrial nations are engaged, victory will not be to that one who can command the greatest number of hands, or the greatest amount of capital, but to the nation whose working classes are the most orderly, the most intelligent and the best educated.

Science continues its discoveries, and every day places at the disposal of industry new and serviceable agents ; but in order to be well applied, these agents, which are sometimes very delicate and sometimes very powerful, require to be skilfully handled. This is the reason why, in the present day, industrial progress is so intimately connected with educational progress ; and why questions, which it is the duty of the university to examine and to solve, have acquired so great importance even as regards the material prosperity of France.

Should any one doubt the importance of the revolution which is taking place, let him look at Switzerland, that country of lakes and mountains, which nature has made so beautiful, while at the same time denying it every condition required to make it the abode of industry ; a country loved by artists and by poets, but without ports, without navigable rivers, without canals and without mines.

Yet, from among these sterile rocks, there is exported every year an amount of products sufficient to pay for all the importations made, and more especially for the 200,000,000 francs' worth of goods, which France alone sells to that people, which in former times cultivated mercenary warfare as its sole branch of industry ; and the country produces besides so many skillful men, that in every commercial city of the world a Swiss colony is found holding the first rank, and in almost every great commercial house may be found intelligent clerks who have come from Basle, Zürich or Neuchâtel ; for in Switzerland, every laborer knows how to read, and no one thinks of leaving school before the age of fifteen or sixteen."

(6.) To complete this survey of the vicissitudes and progress of secondary education in France for the last quarter of a century, we must say, in conclusion, a few words on the establishments which bear the name of communal colleges. These colleges are established under the law of 1803, by the cities, and at their expense, with the approbation of the government. Since 1845, a few have received from the state, annual subsidies, intended to support a certain number of professorships besides those which were maintained by the funds from the municipal budget. The instructing corps depends upon the minister of public instruction, who alone appoints the principals and professors. These colleges have shared the good and bad fortune of the lyceums, the bad perhaps still more than the good. The number and attendance at different times has been as follows :—in 1809, 273, with 18,507 pupils ; in 1815, 323, with 19,320 pupils ; in 1830, 322, with 27,308 pupils ; in 1849, 306, with 31,706 pupils ; in 1855, 244, with 32,500 pupils ; in 1866, 251, with 33,038 pupils.

Dating from the law of March 15, 1850, the competition and opposition of private establishments of this grade, had seriously affected their prosperity. The law, in trying to serve them by demanding conditions which seemed essential to their well-being, in some cases injured them. Article 74 says that "in order to establish a communal college, every city must satisfy the following conditions : furnish premises suitable for that purpose and guarantee their support ; place and keep in these premises the

industrial centres, Creuzot and Lyons, and not far from Saint Étienne and its mines. The government judged that it could not find in the empire a place more suitable for the instruction of the pupil-masters destined to develop industrial schools, nor a combination of accessories which better suggest and illustrate its own ideal, the intentions of the legislature, and the wishes of the country.

Seventy-two general councils have pronounced in favor of the new normal school, and that of Saône-et-Loire voted important subsidies for its installation. Its pupils are composed of candidates supported by the state, the departments, or the cities, and a few free boarders appointed on open competition, held after a preliminary examination to test their ability to pursue the course. Its corps of instruction consists of a director, a sub-director, a chaplain, a steward, seven professors, three *préparateurs*, and a chief gardener. In respect to funds, it is on the same footing with the lyceums; it has its own treasury, into which flow all the receipts, and which pays all expenses. Its graduates have proved, after brilliant examinations, their title to the new *agrégation* established for them.

By the decree of March 28, 1866, the position and rights of the functionaries of different ranks in the special courses have been guaranteed in an equitable manner. The *agrégés* who are not employed, and who are not responsible for their inactivity, receive 400 francs; the titular professors have a fixed salary of 2,000 francs at Paris and Versailles; 1,200, 1,500, and 1,800 francs in the departments. They share, also, in the casual emolument. The division professors and the *chargés de cours*, do not have this last advantage; but their fixed salary is 2,400 francs at Paris and Versailles, and 1,500 and 1,800 francs in the other lyceums. Similar arrangements have regulated the salaries of the elementary teachers, general supervisors, and ushers.

The organization of special instruction is still too recent to be judged by its influence on the class of families for which it was designed, or on the general education of the country. The law of June 21, 1865, and the acts which followed it, have been received thus far with the greatest satisfaction; the number of pupils who pursue the special courses in the lyceums, has risen from 5,000 to more than 8,000; and many communal colleges which were languishing, have been transformed into institutions of special instruction, and are now prosperous.

The lyceum founded at Mont-de-Marsan in 1865, was selected by the minister (M. Duruy) and aided to an unusual extent out of the budget of secondary instruction, to serve as a model for establishments of this kind, in which special instruction should be given on the largest scale, to the exclusion of the usual classical studies. From the start this lyceum has been overwhelmed with candidates from the whole country, in such numbers that the buildings which had been prepared could not accommodate them, and extensive additions have since been made.

The circular of the Minister of Public Instruction, addressed to the rectors, calling their attention to the programmes and other documents

which had been prepared to facilitate the inauguration of the new instruction, concludes as follows :

"I trust, M. le Recteur, that all these measures taken together, will definitely establish a system of secondary special instruction for the people. It is time we should make speed. In the peaceful, but redoubtable struggle, in which the various industrial nations are engaged, victory will not be to that one who can command the greatest number of hands, or the greatest amount of capital, but to the nation whose working classes are the most orderly, the most intelligent and the best educated.

Science continues its discoveries, and every day places at the disposal of industry new and serviceable agents; but in order to be well applied, these agents, which are sometimes very delicate and sometimes very powerful, require to be skilfully handled. This is the reason why, in the present day, industrial progress is so intimately connected with educational progress; and why questions, which it is the duty of the university to examine and to solve, have acquired so great importance even as regards the material prosperity of France.

Should any one doubt the importance of the revolution which is taking place, let him look at Switzerland, that country of lakes and mountains, which nature has made so beautiful, while at the same time denying it every condition required to make it the abode of industry; a country loved by artists and by poets, but without ports, without navigable rivers, without canals and without mines.

Yet, from among these sterile rocks, there is exported every year an amount of products sufficient to pay for all the importations made, and more especially for the 200,000,000 francs' worth of goods, which France alone sells to that people, which in former times cultivated mercenary warfare as its sole branch of industry; and the country produces besides so many skillful men, that in every commercial city of the world a Swiss colony is found holding the first rank, and in almost every great commercial house may be found intelligent clerks who have come from Basle, Zürich or Neuchâtel; for in Switzerland, every laborer knows how to read, and no one thinks of leaving school before the age of fifteen or sixteen."

(6.) To complete this survey of the vicissitudes and progress of secondary education in France for the last quarter of a century, we must say, in conclusion, a few words on the establishments which bear the name of communal colleges. These colleges are established under the law of 1803, by the cities, and at their expense, with the approbation of the government. Since 1845, a few have received from the state, annual subsidies, intended to support a certain number of professorships besides those which were maintained by the funds from the municipal budget. The instructing corps depends upon the minister of public instruction, who alone appoints the principals and professors. These colleges have shared the good and bad fortune of the lyceums, the bad perhaps still more than the good. The number and attendance at different times has been as follows:—in 1809, 273, with 18,507 pupils; in 1815, 323, with 19,320 pupils; in 1830, 322, with 27,308 pupils; in 1849, 306, with 31,706 pupils; in 1855, 244, with 32,500 pupils; in 1866, 251, with 33,038 pupils.

Dating from the law of March 15, 1850, the competition and opposition of private establishments of this grade, had seriously affected their prosperity. The law, in trying to serve them by demanding conditions which seemed essential to their well-being, in some cases injured them. Article 74 says that "in order to establish a communal college, every city must satisfy the following conditions: furnish premises suitable for that purpose and guarantee their support; place and keep in these premises the

furniture necessary for the class-rooms, and the boarding department if the establishment is to receive boarders; guarantee for five years at least, the fixed salary of the principal and the professors, which shall be considered as an obligatory expense for the commune, in case of deficiency of the proper revenues of the college from the collegiate fee paid by the day pupils, and the proceeds of the boarding department."

The cities which had founded communal colleges anterior to the law of 1850, were obliged to satisfy these conditions within two years. Many municipalities hesitated to do so; some abandoned their colleges entirely, others, a smaller number, surrendered them to private teachers, so that the number diminished very sensibly, even with increase of territory and population. It is just to add that, since 1850, eighteen communal colleges, making part of the ancient territory of France, have been made lyceums. These colleges are not therefore lost for public instruction, but it has on the contrary gained by their transformation.

If the communal colleges are less numerous than twenty years ago, the number of pupils has increased from 31,706 to 33,038, or 2,000 more in 1866 than in 1849. Every year there issue from them 300 to 400 bachelors of letters or bachelors of sciences. If the baccalaureate were the exclusive end of studies, and the utility of a school must be measured by the number of candidates that it has admitted, we should be forced to acknowledge that the communal colleges cost more to families, cities, and the state, than they bring back. But out of the 33,000 pupils of these establishments, there are more than 5,000 who receive only primary instruction; there are nearly 12,000 who pursue courses similar to those of special instruction; scarcely 2,500 go beyond the second class and enter rhetoric or pursue courses of elementary and special mathematics; 10,000 to 11,000 do not continue their studies beyond the grammar classes. These facts give evidence of customs and needs to which the communal colleges have been obliged, as much as possible, to conform their organization. It is thus that three only possess a chair of special mathematics: the college Rollin in Paris, the college of Melun, and that of Lorient. On the contrary there are 60 colleges in which classical studies stop at the fourth class, 181 which have a primary school annexed, 236 which support courses of special instruction—but of these last, only 79 maintain the course of four years required by the letter and spirit of the official programmes.

The communal colleges find a great element of success in their proximity to families, who naturally prefer to keep their children while at school under or near the paternal roof. They will render to the country an inestimable service if their instruction shall be so directed and carried on as to form, better perhaps than other institutions of secondary education, manufacturers, merchants, and agriculturists, solidly taught in what they should know, according to their several localities for the exercise of their professions. With this end in view, which the public administration is not disinclined to favor, many communal colleges have discontinued the

classical studies, always rather languishing in the smaller centres, and have transformed themselves into colleges of special instruction.

We cannot leave the communal colleges without noticing the remuneration of their teachers. If we except the college Rollin and the two colleges (Chaptal and Turgot) supported by the city of Paris, in which the endowment of the different chairs is almost the same as in the lyceums, the salaries are notoriously insufficient. Very few reach 2,000 francs, some are below 1,000 francs, and the average does not exceed 1,300 francs. With such a salary, the teacher with a family and no patrimony or other occupation, is condemned to the most painful embarrassments. It cannot suffice, even with great self-denial, for a decent appearance and the education of his children; and when he retires from his post, and his pension is paid at the lowest emoluments attached to his functions, his position is almost hopeless.

The government has done something to raise the respectability of this class of public teachers, by extending to them the consideration which belongs to the rank of professors, but a more essential amelioration will be effected by extending a corresponding increase of salary to the professors of the communal colleges, and generally a higher rate of compensation to all the teachers in the public service.

AGGREGATION IN THE LYCEUMS.

(7.) The terms *aggregation* and *agrégé* have no corresponding words in our system of education. The *agrégé* is an instructor in the lyceums or universities, originally created to fill a sudden vacancy in the corps of teachers, but now occupying a position preparatory to the titular or full professorship. In the lyceum, indeed, his rank is equivalent to that of regular teacher; in the university he is only professor adjunct, or substitute, (*professeur suppléant*), and can obtain the full title only by higher qualifications, such as the rank of doctor or of member of the institute. The *agrégé* receives his rank in a special branch, for which he must pass a severe examination, and he can teach in no other branch until he has passed an examination on the same. The position is called *aggregation*, or fellowship, and exists not only in the departments of secondary and superior instruction generally, but the different studies of each department.

After the expulsion of the Jesuits from France, competitive examinations for teachers to fill their place in the universities, were instituted by the parliament of Paris, August 10, 1766. The examinations were open to all Masters of Arts above twenty years of age, and were designed to test their capability of teaching grammar, classics, or philosophy, the successful candidates being attached, aggregated in the present use of the word (*agrégés*), to the universities, where their chief duty consisted in filling the place of absent professors, and where they had the preference in the nomination to vacant chairs.

The *agrégés* were declared, in the decree of March 17, 1808, to be the fifteenth in rank of the officers of the imperial university, and their salary

fixed at 400 francs. These provisions were developed by a law dating August, 1810, in which the forms, subject, and judgment of the competitions were regulated, but these provisions were not carried out until 1821, when, for the first time since the establishment of the university, examinations for aggregations were held, and forty-seven *agrégés* installed, three in the sciences, twenty in the higher classes of literature, and twenty-four in grammar.

Gradually, as the system of secondary instruction became developed, the number of competitive examinations increased. In 1825, under the ministry of the bishop of Hermopolis, a decree of the Council of Public Instruction established a special aggregation in philosophy; after the revolution of 1830, the growth of historical studies gave rise to an aggregation in history, and finally, in 1840, for the widening field of the sciences, two aggregations were established instead of one—one for the mathematical, one for the physical sciences. In all there were now six.

The following was the state of these examinations under the monarchy of July. The number of places was fixed upon by the Council of Public Instruction, and the examination was held in the halls of the ancient Sorbonne, the headquarters of the academy of Paris.

Admitted to compete for all the orders of aggregation, were: the graduates of the Paris normal school, the principals and regents of the communal colleges, the ushers of the royal and communal colleges after two years of duty, the *chargés de cours* (masters) in the royal colleges after two years of study, principles of institutions and masters of boarding-schools after two years of duty, and the tutors in institutions or boarding-schools commissioned by the rector, after three years of study, duly proven. In none of these cases was a fixed time of study required if the candidates had obtained a doctor's diploma in letters or sciences.

Admitted to special competitions, were: to the aggregation of the sciences, the pupils of the polytechnic school who were considered admissible to the public service; to that of history, graduates of the school of titles who had obtained the diploma of paleographic archivist—no fixed time of study being required in either case.

In all cases the candidates must produce diplomas, the following being required: that of licentiate of letters and bachelor of sciences, for philosophy; of licentiate of mathematical and of physical sciences, for the mathematical sciences; of licentiate of mathematical, physical, and natural sciences, for the physical and natural sciences; of licentiate of letters, for the higher classes in literature and the classes in history; that of bachelor of letters, for grammar.

The candidates were registered at least two months previous to the day of the competition, at the office of the secretary of the academy in which they resided, and the lists of competitors were arranged by the Council of Public Instruction. The council advised the minister in the choice of the judges.

There were three examinations for each concours: firstly, written com-

positions, drawn up in five to seven hours, according to the subject of the aggregation, from which the judges selected those who were to be admitted to the other examinations; secondly, an argument or explanation, lasting from two to three hours; thirdly, a lesson of one hour.

The compositions were as follows: in philosophy, two, one on some point of philosophy, and one on some subject relating to the history of philosophy. In the mathematical sciences, two, one upon the differential and integral calculus, and one upon mechanics. In the physical sciences, one, upon physics, natural history, and chemistry. In literature, four, one in Latin prose on some subject in moral philosophy; one in French prose on some theme concerning ancient and modern literature; a piece of Latin verse, and a Greek translation out of French. In history and geography, three, one on some point of ancient or of Roman history; one on some point of medieval or modern history, and one on some point of comparative geography. In grammar, three written translations, from Latin into French, French into Latin, and French into Greek; also a piece of Latin verse.

The following discussions and oral examinations were held: in philosophy, theses were defended on one or more questions relating to the history of philosophy, which had been chosen by the council, and published nine months before the competition. In mathematics, disputes were held on questions drawn from the programme for licentiates in mathematics. In the physical sciences, discussions on the elements of physics, natural history, and chemistry. In literature, there were explanations of Greek, and a Latin passage drawn by lot from passages chosen by the council nine months before, and debating with one of the competitors chosen by lot to question him. In history and geography, on subjects selected nine months previously. In grammar, explanation of Greek, Latin, and French passages, drawn by lot from the authors designated by the council.

The lessons were the following: in philosophy, on a theme drawn by lot twenty-four hours beforehand, from the philosophical part of the programme for the baccalaureate of letters. In mathematics, upon subjects taught in the royal colleges. In physical sciences, upon the elements of physics, natural history, and chemistry. In literature, on some general question, fixed by the council. In grammar, on a point of general grammar, or on Greek, Latin, or French grammar.

In each competition, immediately after the last examination, the successful candidates were designated by the jury, and after ten days they were installed by the minister, if during that time no appeal was made to the council by any candidate on account of informality.

Such was the condition of the system in 1847, a system inherited from the regulations of the old university of Paris, and promulgated, without material alterations, under the First Empire; the distinction of several orders of aggregation, and the triple division of the examination being old. The subsequent modifications, due to the council of public instruction, did little more than to transfer these regulations to the newly opened competitions.

After the revolution of February, a decree of October 11, 1848, established a competition for the *agrégés* of modern languages, declaring that they were to be assimilated, as to advantages, to the *agrégés* of the grammar classes. The conditions and forms of the competition were fixed by a decree of February 10, 1849, and in the following August the first examination was held, and six *agrégés* each were appointed for English and German.

There had always been complaints in regard to the system; at first that the *agérégés* encouraged the oratorical and the disputative powers, at the expense of the modest merit proper to the director of a class, and after the institution of competitions for special aggregations, that a specialist in any branch was apt to lose sight of the true object of secondary instruction, and overstep his bounds, treating of matters fit only for a body of ripe scholars.

These objections, disregarded at first by prominent men, were gradually gaining ground, until, in 1852, events hastened the reform in university teaching.

On the proposition of M. Fortoul, with the advice of the new council of public instruction, a decree of April 9, 1852, introduced a radical change into the aggregation of the lyceums. The six aggregations were reduced to two: one for the sciences, and one for letters, while the old competitions became simply examinations, to which no one was admitted unless he was twenty-five years old, and had had for five years the direction of a class. The three years passed at the normal school counted as two years of experience. The examinations were two, a preparatory, which all must pass in order to be admitted to the second, and a definitive; and they were held only upon subjects belonging to secondary instruction.

For candidates for the aggregation of letters, the preparatory examinations consisted of a Latin exercise, a piece of Latin verse, a Greek translation, a Latin composition, a French and a German or English composition. The definitive or oral examinations were four in number: (1,) the candidate was to correct two exercises drawn by lot from the preparatory compositions written by the other candidates; (2,) to explain and translate a Greek or Latin passage, and criticise a French passage; (3,) to give two lessons of one hour, the first, after a day's preparation, on grammar or classic literature; the second, after one hour's solitary preparation, on history, logic, or the German or the English language and literature, at his choice; (4,) to criticise, during fifteen minutes, the lessons presented by another candidate.

For the candidates for the aggregation of the sciences, the preparatory examinations consisted of three compositions, one on mathematics, one on the natural and one on the physical sciences. The definitive examinations consisted of practical examinations, such as the chemical analysis of some substance, and three oral examinations: (1,) an hour's lesson on some subject of mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, or natural history, after a day's preparation; (2,) an hour's lesson upon special math-

ematics, the physical sciences, or natural history, with one hour's preparation if there were no experiments, and three if there were; (3,) a rapid criticism of the lessons given by another candidate.

M. Fortoul hoped that these changes would obviate the difficulties previously caused by the old system, and result in producing a class of teachers "who would forget themselves in their pupils, and place their glory only in the progress of the children confided to their care."

The plan of correcting a composition, so excellent in estimating the aptitude of the candidate for one of the most common and most important duties of a professorship, is still continued, but the composition chosen is one of those written by the laureates of the general competition among the lyceums of Paris, instead of one of those written by the candidates for aggregation. Particularly praiseworthy is the abolition of the traditional test of argumentation.

Apart from a few praiseworthy points, however, the system of M. Fortoul was very defective. The greatest fault was, that in trying to avoid special examinations, he had fallen into the opposite error of encouraging too great generality in the preparation of the teachers. These faults soon disclosed themselves, and a series of reformatory measures were attempted, that do honor to the good faith and intelligence of the administration of public instruction. M. Fortoul himself made a few changes in his regulations in 1855. Under the ministry of M. Rouland, the special competitions were restored, as follows: that of grammar, July 14, 1857; that of sciences was divided into two, viz: physical and natural, and mathematical, July 17, 1858; that of history and geography, July 11, 1860. Finally, that of philosophy was restored under the ministry of M. Duruy. Previous to this, it had not been recently pursued in the lyceums as a separate branch, having been subordinated to logic—but he restored it as a separate branch. At the first competition for philosophy, held at the Sorbonne, fifty-five candidates presented themselves, and ten were judged worthy of the title of *agrégé*, the jury, through its president, M. Ravaisson, declaring that this title had never been accorded to more capable and more learned candidates.

Just as at all times, the aggregations have kept pace with the development of secondary instruction, so in 1864, when the study of modern languages was greatly extended, aggregations for these were established according to a regulation promulgated December 5th of the same year. The preparatory examination consists of the following: translations from French into German, English, Italian or Spanish, and *vice versa*, these into French, and two prose compositions on given subjects, one in French, and one in some foreign language. The definitive examination consists in the explanation from the open book, of a passage selected by chance from a foreign language, and a lesson of one hour, given after two hours of solitary preparation, upon some point in the grammar and literature of the German, French, Spanish or Italian, compared with the Greek, Latin, and French.

The last aggregation instituted was that of secondary special instruction,

instituted March 28, 1866, the first examination being held in September, when twenty-seven candidates competed, six receiving the title of *agrégé*. Perhaps the object was not to test the capacity of the masters, but to confer honor upon the profession, opening to it the road to those honors which the university confers upon well-trying students. The examination consisted of a composition upon French literature, one upon history and geography, and three upon mathematics and physical sciences. The competition was very successful, although this aggregation has been divided into two, one for the literary and one for the scientific part of instruction.

We will now give some specimens of the examinations for the *agrégés*, selecting them from the examinations of 1866 :

PHILOSOPHY. Subjects for written compositions: 1. The will. 2. Compare the God of Plato with the God of Aristotle.

Explain and criticise. Plato, the *Theaetetus*. Aristotle, *Physics*, books I and II. Cicero, *De finibus bonorum et malorum*, books IV and V. Seneca, *De vita beata*. Descartes, *Discours sur la méthode*. Kant, *Critique de la raison pure*.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY. Subjects for compositions: 1. Ancient history; the social war, its causes and results. 2. Middle ages; the Guelphs and the Ghibellines. 3. Modern history; the administration of the cardinal de Fleury. 4. Geography; comparative geography of Europe from 1648 to 1763.

Explain and criticise. Thucydides, book VIII. Xenophon, the republic of Sparta and that of Athens. Livy, books XXXI and XXXII. Cæsar, *Bellum Gallicum*, book VII. Villehardouin. Comines, books VI and VII.

LITERATURE. Compositions: 1. Whether the three unities found in the Greek tragedies, which Racine has so well observed, and which the moderns disdain, ought to be preserved. 2. Explain this sentence from Seneca: "*Patrium habet Deus adversus bonos viros animum, et illos fortiter amat, et operibus, inquit, doloribus ac damnis exagitantur ut verum colligant robur.*" 3. A piece of Latin verse. 4. A Latin exercise. 5. A Greek exercise.

Authors to explain. Pindar, *Pythics*, IV and V. Sophocles, *Ajax*. Euripides, *Ion*, Thucydides, harangues in books III and IV. Aristotle, *rhetoric*, book II. Demosthenes against *Midias*. Plautus, the *Captives*. Virgil, *Georgics*, book III. Horace, *Satires*, book II. Cicero, *Tusculan Questions*, books II and III. Tacitus, *annals*, book XIV. Quintilian, books I and XII. Corneille, *Cinna* and *Polyeuctes*. Racine, *Phædra* and *Athalie*. La Fontaine, *fables*, books III and IV. Bossuet, *Oraison funèbre de la duchesse d'Orléans*, and *Punégyrique de Saint Bernard*. Fénelon, *Dialogue sur l'éloquence* and *Lettre à l'Académie Française*. La Bruyère, *Des ouvrages de l'esprit*, *De l'homme*.

GRAMMAR. Compositions. 1. On the employment of the verb in the infinitive as the complement of another verb; to determine the general character of the verbs with which the infinitive can be construed. To examine and compare the syntactical peculiarities of this construction in the Greek, Latin, and French languages. 2 and 3. A Latin and a Greek exercise. 4 and 5. A Latin and a Greek translation. 6. A piece of Latin verse.

Explain—Euripides, *Iphigenia in Aulis*. Theocritus, the *Dioscuri*. Xenophon, the *Memorabilia*. Isocrates, *Panegyric of Athens*. Virgil, *Bucolics*. Horace, *Satires*. Terence, the *Heautontimorumenos*. Cicero, *Pro domo sua*. Tacitus, *De Moribus Germanorum*. Corneille, *Rodogune*. Racine, *Iphigenia in Aulis*. Boileau, *Satires*. Molière, *l'Avare*.

MODERN LANGUAGES. Compositions *For the German*. 1. German prose essay on the part taken by Lessing in the development of German literature. Show what his contemporaries and his most glorious successors owe to him. 2. French prose composition. To show that in the *Art poétique* of Boileau, as in his *satires* and *epistles*, the moral doctrines are the foundation of the literary theories and precepts. 3 and 4. A German exercise and translation.

For the English. 1. Composition in English prose, a literary and philosophical criticism on the *Essays of Bacon*. 2. Composition in French prose. Of the character of Adam in Milton's *Paradise Lost*. 3 and 4. An English exercise and translation.

I. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND STATUS OF TEACHERS.

I. SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOL.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.*

ON the second day of November, (9th brumaire,) 1794, the third and last year of the French republic, and three months after the fall of Robespierre, the National Convention, desiring to establish a superior and uniform system of public instruction, passed the following important order:

"Art. 1. There shall be founded in Paris, a Normal School, open to all citizens, already instructed in the useful sciences, where shall be taught, by the most able professors, the art of teaching, (*l'art d'enseigner.*)

2. The number of pupils to be admitted from each district shall be in proportion to the population, on the basis of one to every twenty thousand inhabitants. In Paris the pupils shall be selected by the authorities of the department.

3. The authorities in the several districts shall select for pupils those persons who possess, together with a good character and true patriotism, the qualifications needed for receiving and imparting instruction.

4. No person shall be admitted under twenty-one years of age.

5. The pupils shall receive for their support, including traveling expenses, the same that is given to the pupils of the Central School of Public Works.

6. The Committee of Public instruction shall designate those persons whom it deems best fitted to fill the office of professor, and shall submit their names to the National Convention for approval. They shall fix the salaries in consultation with the Committee on Finances."

Such was the beginning of the Normal School, (*école normale supérieure,*) and it realized hopes which had often found expression in the old universities, but had never been embodied in a public institution.

The school was opened January 19, 1795, in the rooms of the Museum of Natural History, under the direction of two members of the convention. Rarely have more eminent men been associated as instructors. Lagrange, Laplace, Berthollet, Monge, Haüy, Daubenton, and Thouin taught natural philosophy and mathematics. The professors of general grammar, literature, history, geography, mental and moral philosophy, were Sicard, LaHarpe, Volney, Buache, Mentelle, and Bernardin de Saint-Pierre. Fourteen hundred students, full of enthusiasm, crowded to the amphitheatre for instruction by lectures from such distinguished masters.

But notwithstanding these various elements of success, the school was open for only three months. Either because the instruction was of too

* From official report of M. Charles Jourdain.

high a grade, or the pupils not properly prepared to receive it, it soon became apparent that it would be impossible to transform them into teachers. For the next twelve years the want of good instruction was severely felt, and when the organization of the university was completed, it became absolutely necessary to take measures for securing a uniform educational system, and a permanent body of skilled teachers. The decree of Napoleon, March 17, 1808, establishing the university, contained also the following provisions:

"*Art.* 110. There shall be established, at Paris, a Normal Boarding School, prepared to receive at least three hundred young men, who shall be educated in the art of teaching letters and science.

111. The inspectors of the academy shall select, each year, from the lyceums, after due examination and competition, a certain number of pupils, of seventeen years of age or over, whose good conduct and progress have been most marked, and who shall have shown aptitude for governing and instructing.

112. Those who present themselves for examination shall be authorized by their father or guardian to pursue the university course. They shall be received into the normal school only on engaging to continue in the profession of teaching for at least ten years.

113. These candidates shall pursue their studies at the College of France, or the Polytechnic School, or the Museum of Natural History, according as they intend to teach letters, or the different sciences.

114. Besides their regular lessons, there shall be tutors, chosen from the older and more talented pupils, under whose direction they shall review the subjects taught in the special schools before-mentioned, and have laboratory practice in natural philosophy or chemistry.

115. The pupils shall not remain at the normal boarding school more than two years. They shall then be supported at the expense of the university, and be bound out to their profession.

116. The normal school shall be under the supervision of one of the counselors for life, who shall reside at the institution, and have under him a director of studies.

117. The number of candidates for the normal school shall be regulated by the condition and needs of the colleges and lyceums.

118. The candidates, during their course of two years, or at the close of it, must take their degrees at Paris, in the department of letters, or in that of science. They will then be called upon, in regular order, to fill vacant places in the academies, as they may occur."

The above organization of the normal school was completed by the special order of March 30, 1810, and the corps of officers consisted of the counselor, or head of the school, the director of studies, the chaplain; masters, assistant teachers, and steward.

The first member of the council, who was called to preside over the school, was Bernard Guérault, who afterwards became eminent as professor of rhetoric, at the College of Harcourt.

In 1810, the school counted only thirty-seven students, and the annual expense for each student was 1,000 francs. In 1812, the number reached seventy-seven, and in that year Napoleon issued an order for the erection of a grand building for the school, to be located on the left bank of the Seine, but the order was never carried out. In 1815, under the restoration, the school was more perfectly organized, and the course extended to three years. The third year was devoted to the study of special methods of teaching; such, for example, as were set forth by Jouvency, Rollin, and Fleury. Lecturers on special subjects, and equal in rank to the first professors in the imperial colleges, or lyceums, were added to the faculty, and the standard for position of tutor was advanced.

In the ordinance of January 3, 1821, the normal school appears in the list of institutions to be established in the building of the Sorbonne. But even then the school was losing favor with the new government, and its very existence threatened, under the implication of fomenting a spirit of insubordination and ambitious pretensions. The intentions of the government were soon clearly intimated in the report of the Minister of the Interior, M. de Corbière, in which he recommended the formation of schools, more or less normal in character, (*écoles normales partielles*), near the royal colleges, both in Paris and in the departments. "In these schools," M. de Corbière says, "a small number of select pupils shall be prepared from childhood, in those studies and habits which belong to the *grave et sérieuse* profession, to which they are destined. Candidates so trained, will not disdain subordinate duties, and thus there will prevail throughout the whole body of teachers the spirit of order and conservatism." Attacked by a powerful party, the fate of the normal school was sealed, and on the 6th of September, 1822, it was suppressed.

The new semi-normal schools were in no degree successful. It became evident that neither unity nor improvement in the educational system of the country could be attained, if the vocation were abandoned to the individuals engaged in it, or left to the mercy of various and contradictory influences. By an ordinance of March 9, 1826, they were materially changed, and called preparatory schools; their number was reduced, and the candidates required to pursue a thorough classical course. In September of the same year, a preparatory school of letters and science was annexed to the College of Louis-le-Grand. In 1829, the pupils of this school organized what might be called a *pedagogia practicum*, under the direction of experienced masters, and under the patronage of a commission composed of the general inspectors and the academy inspectors of the university. With a different title, the old normal school was thus re-established, and one of the first acts of the new government, in 1830, was to give to this school the old name. On the same day it placed over it, as its head, one of the most esteemed scholars of France, M. Cousin, who, fifteen years before, had been one of its pupils. The impulse imparted to the institution by that distinguished teacher, created a wonderful activity in all departments. The course was extended to three years, the plan of studies

was revised, and the discipline made strict. Still greater changes were made, by the establishment of annual competitive examinations for the admission of students, and a division of the scholarships into whole and half-scholarships, the former reserved for the students of highest grade. The school became famous, and was regarded, by the enemies as well as the friends of the university, as the best of its class ever established. The government ordered the erection of a building for its exclusive use, as had been the wish and intention of Napoleon in 1812. The building was located near the Museum of Natural History and the Library of St. Geneviève. In October, 1846, the normal school took possession, the pupils then numbering one hundred, which was increased the following year to one hundred and twenty. The course of instruction included, in the division of letters, Greek, Latin, and French literature, the history of literature, general history, philosophy, and grammar; in the scientific division, differential and integral calculus, geometry, higher algebra, mechanics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, natural history, comparative anatomy, and physiology; also for the students of both divisions, a course in pedagogy, and in the German and English languages. Each year the students who graduated were to be distributed among the colleges of Paris, and drilled for several weeks under the direction of a professor.

As it appeared no less important to provide suitable professors and tutors for the communal or parish colleges,* and as it was a common reproach brought against the university, if not rather a merit, that *instruction* was sacrificed to *education*, an ordinance, of December 6, 1845, directed the organization of secondary normal schools, of lower rank, to be established in those towns where the communal colleges were situated. The great school at Paris received, for distinction, the title of "Superior Normal School."

In 1848, in accordance with the spirit of the revolution of February, the normal school adopted the plan, or principle, of free instruction, a principle which had been discarded in 1833. The new government revived this policy "in the name of republican equality, and for the interests of education, and for the good of the poorer classes." This is the language of the Committee on Public Instruction:

"The privilege of gratuitous instruction in the normal schools is justified by considerations which spring from the very self-sacrificing devotion marking the opening career of the students destined, most of them, to the position of an ordinary teacher. The vocation demands an ardent zeal,

* The French system of public instruction consists of three divisions: Superior, Secondary and Primary. The University, with its fifty-four faculties, constituting the superior; the Lycées, or as sometimes called, the Imperial or Royal Colleges, and the Communal Colleges, forming the secondary; and the schools of different grades, together with the asylums, forming the primary. The colleges correspond in many respects to our own colleges, but the lycées are of a higher grade than the communal colleges. The latter are maintained by the towns in which they are situated, and in their early history were called *secondary schools*, in distinction from the lycées. Both prepare the student for the baccalaureate degree. There are now in operation in France, 77 lycées, with 84,442 pupils, and 251 communal colleges, with 33,000 pupils.

an abnegation of talent which resigns itself to labor without fame, and a stubborn toil which undermines the strongest constitutions. Moreover, for this mission, or priestly office of instructor, as it may well be called, the candidates are recruited almost always from the poor. It is therefore necessary that an absolute rule be established, that talent in no case shall be thrust back, or poverty be an obstacle."

Between the years 1849 and 1853, the number of students decreased, the appropriation was reduced from 237,600 to 178,610 francs, and great changes were introduced. The first reform, and perhaps the most useful, affected the regulations for admission. The minimum age of applicants was advanced one year, from seventeen to eighteen, and the examination made more rigorous, taking into consideration, not only attainments and ability, but the antecedents, character, and habits, in fact, all those qualifications which a parent would value in choosing a preceptor for his children. These excellent modifications, which still remain in full force, perfected in an essential respect, the old organization, without changing the constitution of the school. In 1852, under the ministry of M. Fortoul, reforms of a different character were adopted, affecting the course of studies and the rules of promotion.

Previous to these changes, the new pupils, having taken the degree of Bachelor of Letters, or of science, at the lyceum, or commercial college, devoted the first year to a review of the subjects they had already studied. At the end of the first year, those in the section of letters, who were pronounced fitted for the degree of licentiate, were allowed to present themselves for examination, and the best students were usually successful. During the second year the studies were carried forward as far as their variety would permit, but in the section of letters the instruction was materially changed, and had for its leading object, not the technical and elementary treatment, but the historical development of philosophy, and of Greek, Latin, and French literature. Before entering the third year, the students were bound, under pain of being dismissed from the school, to be prepared to take the licentiate degree; except that those in the section of science, being obliged to take a double degree, one of physical science and the other of mathematics, only the former was required at the end of the second year.

The third and last year was given to special studies, according to the taste and aptitude of the student, the preparation having for its goal the high rank or title of fellow, (*agrégé*),* from which class the professors and assistant professors in the lyceum are chosen. Graduation at the normal school did not insure this title, but gave the pupil the right to present himself for examination as a candidate.†

*In the original organization of the University in 1808, the rank of *fellow* was made the *fifteenth* among its functionaries, and superior to the principals and professors in the communal colleges.

† These test or competitive examinations for the rank of fellow, (*les concours de l'agregation des lycées*), were instituted about the middle of the last century, and being the gateways to the higher professional positions, they hold a prominent place in the history and the organization of the French system of education.

The leading modification of 1852, and one most unwillingly received by the members of the school, was the postponing for three years the right to appear as candidates for the above honor, and in connection with this grave measure, the licentiate degree was fixed as the intention and goal of the course, and even the section of letters was not allowed an examination for this degree before the close of the second year, whereas under the former regulations, many attained that honor in the first year. The object of the reforms of 1852, being to raise the standard of scholarship and of pedagogic skill in the corps of professors, the members of the normal school, who at the end of the course had passed successfully all the examinations, were appointed to certain subordinate teachers' duties in the lyceums, in which the three years, intervening before the fellowship could be reached, were to be spent.

The decree of 1852, included also changes in the curriculum. The school was declared to be "essentially literary and scientific" in character; philosophy was to be taught as a method of analysis, or investigation into the operations of the human mind in letters and sciences. In the section of letters, the first year's course, though being, as before, a revision of the college or lyceum studies, was enlarged, and consisted of the following sub-courses :

1. Greek language and literature, including grammar and prosody; with translations from Greek into French, and French into Greek, and a study of the Greek classics in illustration of the historical development of the language.
2. A course in the Latin language and literature after the same plan.
3. French language and literature, embracing a scientific analysis of model works, viz. those of Malherbe in the department of poetry, and of Descartes in prose; also compositions, narratives, letters, discourses, analyses, and dissertations.
4. Ancient history, and Greek and Roman archeology.
5. Philosophy, more especially the study of the human understanding and method.
6. Modern languages.

With the exception of the course on the Latin language, the instruction of the second year was similar to that of the first, but more historic in character. In sketching the principal schools of philosophy, the professor was required to illustrate the harmony among great minds of all ages in regard to those truths which affect the moral government and destiny of man. The study of ancient history was set aside for that of the middle ages and modern history, and the course of Latin oratory or poetry, and that of Greek literature were to be continued.

The course of the third year like those of the preceding, included Greek, Latin, and French language and literature, French history, philosophy, and modern languages, but the number of lessons was reduced, and the studies conducted with more definite reference to the students' plans for the future. The general rules or guides for this year were :

1. To review grammatical subjects with the aid of general and comparative grammar.
2. To develop those subjects in the department of literature which had not been thoroughly treated before.
3. To complete the course of history and philosophy.
4. To perfect the students in the classical branches, also in composition, style, and oral expression.
5. Above all, to familiarize them with the principles of scientific criticism, and the practice of rational methods.

In the section of science, the two first years were devoted to such studies as prepared the student for the licentiate degree in mathematics, and the same degree in physical sciences. For the former degree there were two examinations; one in the differential and integral calculus, at the end of the first year, and another in mechanics, at the end of the second year. For the latter degree, an examination in chemistry at end of first year, in physics at end of second year. These four examinations were conducted before the faculty of science in Paris. The unsuccessful candidates were not admitted to the course of the third year, and were obliged to quit the school. In the third year the studies were made special and limited, to accord with the department selected by the student for his career as a professor.

Independently of the regular examinations for degrees, the students appeared each year before a commission of the general inspectors of the university to be questioned by them. In the third year, the pupils were required, at these examinations, to question each other. Written compositions and lectures were also required. The commission then prepared a list of those students whom it considered as prepared to continue at the school, or, if graduates, to be employed in the lyceums or colleges.

The new regulations gave more precision and definiteness to the system of instruction; they guarded against the tendency attending special studies and courses, to render the student learned, rather than able as a professor; and it connected with the study of literature that close analysis of standard works, which supposes a thorough knowledge of the languages. But these advantages were not sufficient to counteract the dissatisfaction caused by the postponement of the examinations for the licentiate and fellow's degree. Many became discouraged, and the number of candidates sensibly diminished, and within the school there was a manifest abatement of zeal. History and philosophy were neglected, and the study of the Greek and Latin authors, and of French literature, and even composition, were reduced to the narrow and technical demands of the licentiate degree. Affairs reached that point that the government found difficulty in filling the vacancies in the chairs of history and philosophy in the lyceums and colleges. It became evident that M. Fortoul, in his reforms, had gone too far. Hence, in 1857, under the ministry of M. Rouland, the novitiate, to be passed in the lyceums or colleges, by the graduates of the school, was reduced from three years to one, and the next year it was altogether dis-

pensed with, in the case of those pupils who successfully passed the examinations of one year, permitting them, as before the order of 1852, to be candidates for the fellowship at the close of the normal course. In January, 1859, the old regime was still farther restored by an order which permitted the students in the section of letters to present themselves for the licentiate degree in the tenth month of the first year.

The value placed upon the institution by the government is shown in their choice of functionaries appointed to direct it, from 1830 to 1840, M. Victor Cousin; 1840 to 1850, M. Dubois, member of the council of public instruction; 1850 to 1857, M. Michelle, the rector of the Academy of Besançon, who was succeeded by M. Désiré Nisard, member of the French academy, and held in highest esteem by the university. The administration of the school, and the charge of the scientific courses were entrusted to M. Pasteur, member of the academy of sciences; the section of letters to M. Jaquinet, the senior laureat of the university, and an eminent master.

The number of students in 1863, was one hundred, and the appropriation for the support of the school, was 291,000 francs. The salaries were, about that time, advanced, the masters receiving 6,000 francs. The prosperity of the institution also authorized the addition of new courses, among them, one in geography; also the enlargement of the chemical laboratory. This laboratory, founded by the munificence of the Emperor, has become, under the direction of the eminent professor M. Henri Sainte-Claire Deville, a celebrated centre of study and original research.

Since 1863, under the ministry of M. Duruy, the normal school has continued to improve. Though the department of philosophy had recovered its honored place in the lyceums, the ministry has judged it advisable to require of the candidates for the school, a year's exclusive study of this branch, as a condition of admission, and in the school, a new course in philosophy has been instituted. In 1865, the budget added 16,000 francs to the appropriation, which allowed of an enlargement sufficient for ten additional students.

Until 1866, ushers (*maîtres surveillants*,) had been employed in the normal school to watch over the pupils during the hours of study and recreation, and in fact, at all hours, both day and night. M. Duruy being of the opinion that the future professors should learn to govern themselves, and appreciate their responsibilities, abolished the office of usher, and the happy results prove the wisdom of his action.

The latest modification in the organization of this institution is that which makes the third year course accessible to those tutors (*maîtres répétiteurs*,) of the lyceums, who have already received the licentiate diploma. This important rule enlarges and generalises the character of the school. The instruction of the school being no longer the exclusive privilege of the regular pupils, they may be obliged, in the competition for fellowship, to contend with strong rivals, and a beneficial emulation be excited.

From the foundation of this famous school, up to the year 1866, it has admitted about 1,700 pupils. Of this number, 788 have obtained the rank of fellow; 113 in the department of grammar, 268 in letters, 56 in philosophy, 60 in history, 201 in mathematics, 70 in physics, and 20 in modern languages. Most of those who have not received fellowships have followed their profession in the lyceums and communal colleges, as adjunct professors in the former, or as professors in the latter, both being functionaries inferior in rank to a fellow.

In preparing learned and able teachers for the youth, the normal school has also educated distinguished authors and savants. There is no branch of literature or science, which its pupils have not cultivated with success and honor. By whom are most of the prizes, annually given by the academies, borne off, if not by the former pupils of the normal school? Of those who once sat upon its benches, are now members of the institute, viz: two of the French academy, M. Patin, and M. Prévost Paradol; four of the academy of inscription and belles-lettres, M. Guigniaut, M. Wallon, M. Beulé, and M. Quicherat; one of the academy of sciences, M. Pasteur; five of the academy of moral sciences, M. Michelet, M. Jules Simon, M. Janet, M. Lévêque, and M. Bersot. Three are members of the council of public instruction; 9 are general inspectors; 9, rectors; 17, provisors; 12, censors; and 65, professors of faculties. The present (1868) Minister of Public Instruction, M. Duruy, was a pupil. It renders service and honor to the university and the country, and is equally dear to both.

Prof. Arnold, in his report to the School Inquiry Commission in 1866, dwells on the importance of the Superior Normal School, in giving dignity and consideration to the profession of public teaching in France, and in keeping it fully supplied with men, whose intellectual and professional training being of the highest order, carry weight with the pupils they teach, and command for themselves, as well as their work, the intellectual and moral respect of the community.

I have already mentioned this admirable institution; it enjoys a deserved celebrity out of France as well as at home, and nowhere else does there exist anything quite like it. Decreed by the revolutionary government, and set to work by that of the first Napoleon, it had two periods of difficulty, one under the Restoration, when it attracted hostility as a nest of liberalism, and it was proposed to abate its importance by substituting for one central normal school, several local ones; another after the revolution of February, when the grant to it was greatly reduced, and the number of pupils fell off. But it has now recovered its grants and its numbers, and few institutions in France are so rooted in public esteem. Its main function is to form teachers for the public schools. It has two divisions; one literary, and the other scientific. Its pupils at present number 110; they are all called *bursars*, holding a scholarship of about \$200 a year, which entirely provides for the cost of their maintenance. The course is a three years' one; but a certain number of the best pupils are retained for a fourth and fifth year: these, however, are lost to the secondary schools, being prepared for the doctorate, and for the posts of superior instruction, such as the professorships in the faculties.

This school is on the Rue d'Ulm, in the old school quarter of Paris on the left bank of the Seine, where the Sorbonne, and by far the greater part of the *lycées* and centres of instruction, secondary and superior, are still to be found. The building is large and handsome, something like one of the modern colleges at Oxford or Cambridge; it has chapel, library, and garden; the tricolor flag

(1845)

waves over the entrance. Everything is beautifully neat and well kept; the life in common which economy compels these great establishments, in France, severely to practice, has,—when its details are precisely and perfectly attended to, and when, as at the *école normale*, the resources allow a certain finish and comfort much beyond the strict needs of the barrack or hospital,—a more imposing effect for the eye than the arrangement of college rooms.

Last year 344 candidates presented themselves for 35 vacancies, and these candidates were all picked men. To compete, a youth must in the first place be over 18 years of age and under 24; must produce a medical certificate that he has no bodily infirmity unfitting him for the function of teacher, and a good-conduct certificate from his school. He must enter into an engagement to devote himself, if admitted, for ten years to the service of public instruction, and he must hold the degree of bachelor of arts if he is a candidate in the literary section of the school, of bachelor of sciences if in the scientific. He then undergoes a preliminary examination, which is held at the same time in the centre of each academy throughout France. This examination weeds the candidates; those who pass through it come up to Paris for a final examination at the *école normale*, and those who do best in this final examination are admitted to the vacant scholarships. A bare list of subjects of examination is never very instructive; the reader will better understand what the final examination is, if I say that the candidates are the very *élite* of the *lycées*, who in the highest classes of these *lycées* have gone through the course of instruction, literary or scientific, there prescribed. In the scientific section of the normal school, the first year's course comprehends the differential and integral calculus, and it will be seen what advanced progress in the pupil such a course implies.

I found 110 pupils in the normal school, all *bursars*; commoners, to use our expression, are not received. For these 110 students, there are, besides the director-general, and a director of scientific studies, and another of literary studies, 23 professors, or *maîtres de conférences*, as in this institution they are called.

The cost of the school in 1865, was about \$60,000. The library, laboratory, and collections seemed to me excellent.

The pupils have half-yearly examinations, and they are practiced to some extent, and under the present minister, M. Duruy, more than ever before, in the *lycées* of Paris. The teaching of the professors keeps always in view the scholastic destination of their hearers. At the end of the third year's course, the student who has passed through it with distinction, is authorized to present himself at once for aggregation. Five years' school practice, it will be remembered, is required of other candidates. The less distinguished student is at once nominated to a *lycée*, but to the post of assistant professor only, not of full professor; after one year's service in the capacity of assistant professor, he may present himself for aggregation.

I have been somewhat minute in describing how the body of professors in the French public schools is formed, because the best feature of these schools seems to me to be their thoroughly trained and tested staff of professors. They are far better paid than the corresponding body of teachers in Italy; they have a far more recognised and satisfactory position than the corresponding body of teachers in England. The latter are, no doubt, better paid; but, with the exception of the head-masters of the great schools, who hold a position apart, who need eminent aptitudes for other things besides teaching, and also are very few in number, they form no hierarchy, have no position, are saddled, to balance their being better paid, with boarding-house cares, have literally no time for study, and no career before them. A French professor has his three, four, or five hours' work a day in lessons and conferences, and then he is free; he has nothing to do with the discipline or religious teaching of the *lycée*; he has not to live in its precincts; he finishes his teaching, and then he leaves the *lycée* and his cares behind him altogether. The provisor, the censor, the chaplains, the superintendents, have the business of government and direction, and they are chosen on the ground of their aptitude for it. A young man wishing to follow a profession which keeps him in contact with intellectual studies, and enables him to continue them, but who has no call and no talent for the trying post of teacher, governor, pastor, and man of business, all in one, will hesitate before he becomes a master in an English public school, but he may very well become a professor in a French one. Accordingly, the service of public instruction in France attracts a far greater proportion of the intellectual force of the country, than in England.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA.

AREA.—POPULATION.—HISTORY.

PRUSSIA, at the present time one of the most powerful kingdoms of Europe, and the leading state of the North German Union, has developed gradually from very small beginnings. It takes its name from the Prussians, (*Borussi*, a nation composed of two elements, a Slavonic and a German,) who are first mentioned towards the end of the 10th century as living east of the Vistula. They were a fierce and warlike people who successfully resisted all attempts of the Polish Dukes to subdue them. Christianity was introduced among them after long and sanguinary wars, chiefly through the exertions of the Teutonic Knights, who in 1283, completed their conquest, and made the territory the property of the Order. Numerous German colonists from all parts of the Empire immigrated, and flourishing cities began to rise in the desolated country. Gradually the Order began to decline, and not being able any longer to hold their own against the powerful Polish Kings, whose vassals they had become, they called as their Grand Master, in the year 1511, Albrecht, Duke of Brandenburg. In 1525, Prussia was solemnly ceded to him by Poland, as a secular hereditary duchy. In 1618, Albrecht Frederick, Duke of Prussia, died without issue, and the duchy passed to John Sigismund, Elector of Brandenburg from the house of Hohenzollern. This dynasty (still reigning in Prussia,) first came into the possession of Brandenburg in 1415, when the German Emperor Sigismund, in order to get money for his expensive wars, sold that electorate to Frederick VI, Count of Hohenzollern and Margrave of Nuremberg. Elector Sigismund, besides acquiring Prussia, added to his dominion the Duchy of Cleve, the county of Ravensberg, and other portions of Western Germany, thus laying the foundation of Prussia's possessions on the Rhine. Frederick William, the "Great Elector," (1640—1688,) acquired Eastern Pomerania after the peace of Westphalia, as well as Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, &c. Frederick III, his successor, also added other portions. His reign, however, is chiefly important by his obtaining from the German Emperor the privilege for himself and successors of the title of King of Prussia. On the 18th January, 1701, he placed with his own hands the regal crown on his head at Königsberg, where the Kings of Prussia have since been crowned, and called himself Frederick I. At this period the population numbered one million and a half. The first

King of Prussia made few efforts to increase the territory left him by the Great Elector, but his successor, Frederick William I, (1718—1740,) having acquired a treasure of nine millions of thalers, bought family domains to the amount of five million thalers, and raised the annual income of the country to six millions, three-fourths of which sum was spent on the army. After adding part of Pomerania to the possessions of the house, he left his son and successor, Frederick II, called "the Great," (1740—1786,) a state of 47,770 square miles, with two and a half millions inhabitants. Frederick II added Silesia, an area of 14,200 square miles, with one and a quarter millions of inhabitants; this, with the large territory gained in the first partition of Poland, increased Prussia to 74,840 square miles, with a population of more than five and a half millions. Under the reign of his successor, Frederick William II, the state was enlarged by the acquisition of Anspach and Baireuth, (ceded to Bavaria in 1815,) as well as the vast territory acquired in the second partition of Poland, which extended its area to nearly 100,000 square miles, with about nine millions of people. Under Frederick William III, (1797—1840,) nearly one-half of this state was appropriated by Napoleon; but the Congress of Vienna (1815), not only restored this loss, but added part of the Kingdom of Saxony, the Rhine-lands, and Swedish Pomerania, molding Prussia into two separate pieces of territory, with a total area of 107,800 square miles, and a population of 10,250,000.

This kingdom was consolidated into a compact state of 187,000 square miles, with a population of 28,578,085, by the war of 1866, when the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg, formerly belonging to Denmark, the kingdom of Hanover, the electorate of Hesse-Cassel, the duchy of Nassau, and the Free City of Frankfort were added. The treaty of Prague, which terminated the war, likewise provided for the entire exclusion of Austria from Germany, and the establishment of the North German Union, in which the political and military leadership was given to Prussia.

For civil and ecclesiastical purposes the monarchy is divided into provinces, which, in 1828 and 1867 were as follows:

Provinces.	1828.	1867.	Square miles.
Brandenburg.....	1,549,602.....	2,719,775.....	15,505
Pomerania.....	877,555.....	1,445,635.....	12,130
Silesia.....	2,396,551.....	3,585,752.....	15,666
Saxony.....	1,409,388.....	2,067,066.....	9,729
Westphalia.....	1,228,544.....	1,707,726.....	7,771
Rhine—Cleves.....	1,075,025 }	3,455,358.....	10,289
Lower Rhine.....	1,126,297 }		
Prussia East.....	1,216,154 }	3,690,960.....	24,880
Prussia West.....	792,207 }		
Posen.....	1,064,506.....	1,537,338.....	11,330
Hohenzollern & Jahde.....		65,352.....	452
Schleswig Holstein, Lauenburg.....		1,379,745.....	7,414
Hanover.....		1,937,637.....	14,846
Franconia (Hesse-Nassau).....		1,379,750.....	4,430

Each province is divided into Regencies (*Regierungs-bezirke*), which are again subdivided into Circles (*Kreise*) and those into parishes (*Gemeinden*.)

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

A. Ante-regal Period.

1. THE educational history of Prussia begins with the first establishments in the Mark of Brandenburg, which at the time of the Elector Joachim II. constituted the nucleus of the present monarchy. In the canonic law of this Elector, in 1540, there is this paragraph: "Whereas the preservation of the Christian religion and public order requires that youth should receive instruction in schools, and whereas schools have been in the decline of late, therefore I order that they shall be reëstablished, reformed, and improved in all towns and market-places."* This canonic law, then, presupposes schoolmasters and school-houses, referring, however, to schools in towns only, in which Latin was taught besides the elementary branches.

The development of a school system in the gradually growing country, and its effect on the people in consequence of this ordinance, and of that of 1573† regulating the Visitations and organizing the Consistory, is only occasionally and vaguely mentioned during a period of two hundred years, from 1578 to 1768, and then always in connection with the churches. These notes are rare and deficient, compared with those of later periods, particularly of the present time. There were such gigantic claims upon the energy of the best disposed monarchs of the country, so many different wants to be supplied, difficulties to be removed, and there was so little legal power, that the common schools showed very little improvement for centuries. They were left as much as possible to themselves. The monarch appears to have been too far above these internal and apparently unimportant affairs, or to have had very little time left. Nor were the people a unit either in religion or language. Not to mention the Jews, there were Evangelic and Catholic, German, Polish, and Lithuanian subjects, whose communities were ruled by patrons, who did not show much interest. There may have been sometimes an inclination to do something in one direction, yet there was no pedagogic experience to effect more than the very least. The slow and clumsy development of an educational system has been originally effected by provinces. Evangelic Brandenburg, the nucleus of the growing State, accepted the *status quo* in the districts, when they were annexed, and occasionally developed

* *Mylius, Const. Mark.*, Vol. I., Sect. II. † *Do.*, I., Part 1, Section VII.

it from this original basis. It was not before 1763 that the first general regulation was issued; it referred to the country schools of the Evangelic districts, excepting the French Reformed communities.

2. In the Electorate of Brandenburg, the ordinance concerning Visitations and the Consistory, issued by John George in 1578, presupposes, as mentioned before, the existence of schools, school-masters and their assistants; yet these schools must be always understood to be town-schools. There were none in villages at that time, nor at a much later period; there is no mention made of them in the ordinance. The organization of the Church of the year 1540 directs the sacristans to teach the catechism to children and servants; this may be considered as the first step taken to render a subsequent organization of schools possible. There were girls' schools in towns, but no particulars about them are reported.

The instruction for the Visitation of Churches, of the year 1600, refers to town-schools only. It was not before the close of the Thirty Years' War, under the reign of Frederic William the Great, that boys' and girls' schools were established in villages; these mark the beginning of a system of instruction in the country. In 1662 it was ordered that the churches and communities (i. e. the representatives of church property and of the individuals belonging to the parish,) were to exert their influence that good schools might be established here and there, in villages, market-places and towns. Nothing more can be found about these schools.

8. Large districts, having a political organization, were annexed to Brandenburg, viz., under John Sigismund, (1609,) Jülich Mark and Ravensberg, and (1619) the duchy of Prussia; under the great Elector, Western Hinterpommern with dependencies, the duchy of Magdeburg and the principalities of Halberstadt and Minden. The schools of the Reformed and Lutheran parishes in the Rhenish districts attracted soon the attention of the government; some steps were taken to establish a school system by directing that the Reformed parish schools should be guided by the edict of the great Elector (1662,) the Lutheran parish-schools by that of 1687, and that public parochial schools were to be maintained, and private schools (*Winkelschulen*) prohibited. Preparations were made in 1687 to establish in Wesel a "nursery for teachers," called *Contubernium*, from which, subsequently, alumni were sent to a normal school. Nothing is said in these ordinances about Catholic schools. There had been schools in the city of Königsberg, in Prussia proper, even before the secularization of the "grand-masters," but in the country were none at that time; the instructions issued in 1568 and 1598 mention them for the first time. The establishment of public schools in Pomerania took place at a comparatively recent period. The organization of the church of 1568 knows nothing about village schools. In the section which treats on schools, it is directed that "German writing-schools and maiden-schools were to be established in towns, besides Latin schools; that the teachers were to be appointed by the town councils; that the

treasury had to find them lodging; that they might receive a present from the treasury when pious and obliging to the minister; that their salary, however, was to be paid by the pupils, whom they had to teach reading, orthography, calligraphy and arithmetic, make them learn their catechism and go to hear the sermon, all according to a system prescribed by the minister. The first attempt at an establishment of Evangelic public schools in Magdeburg was made after the termination of the Thirty Years' War. The sacristans were admonished by an edict of the administrator Augustus in 1652, to be obedient assistants of the ministers in all their official duties, to teach the lads and lasses reading and writing, also to instruct them in the catechism, and singing of Christian hymns; the ministers were directed to enforce these regulations, and to persuade parishioners to send their children to school. These instructions were not only given, but a general church visitation assisted in their being attended to and acted upon. This visitation found the schools in a miserable condition, and the result of their report was the instructions of 1656 recommending the establishment of schools. Yet it appears from Augustus' school regulations of 1658 for the Latin schools in towns and for village schools, that the establishment of the latter had not yet been effected. These regulations were not revised before the end of the century.

B. Kingdom of Prussia.

1. The Prussian system of public education does not at once commence with the establishment of the Prussian monarchy. Although at the time of Frederic I. those branches and grades of public education received sufficient encouragement which might assist in diffusing glory and splendor around the new crown and the states, now united in one monarchy; yet nothing of consequence was done for common, elementary schools, if we except a slight encouragement to assist schoolmasters' widows and orphans, and a decree enjoining stricter visitations. Now this is very little indeed, for however well calculated visitations may be for the management of an administration, the persons charged with their execution do not manage it, in spite of all its instructions and regulations; their praise or dissatisfaction is always too late. The management of instruction by the men who teach is naturally the principal consideration. The value and efficiency of a system of education mainly rests with the teachers as a class, and there can not exist a proper system so long as there are no proper teachers. The practical working of the system of instruction remained without life and without effect, for the essential desideratum of success, the right kind of teachers, did not yet exist. Persons in towns, called teachers, were, more or less, dissipated men, or candidates for orders, who accepted the office of teachers for the purpose only of the sooner obtaining the more lucrative position of a preacher—a practice not yet quite extinct. In villages, the persons called teachers were tradesmen, practicing their craft, discharged gentlemen's servants, and invalid soldiers. Individuals of proper education and any knowledge of the science and art of teaching did not exist at all, and even the num-

ber of those teachers who did their work poorly enough, was not sufficient. The firm establishment of a system of public education promising progressive development was the fruit of the eighteenth century, and the merit belongs particularly to the administrations of Frederic William I. and of Frederic II., who in many respects may be considered as one and the same person.

FREDERIC WILLIAM I.

a. The reign of Frederic William I. was a period of collecting, preparing, trying. The thrifty king did not only collect money and soldiers for the future great prince of battle, but he also bequeathed to the future great prince of peace a population, trained to be obedient to government, to fear God, to be industrious and thrifty. He alone has established eighteen hundred schools. The so-called *pietism* concentrated under his protection in Halle, and extended its influence thence over all the Prussian provinces. It is well known, that in consequence of these more profound views of human life, a hitherto unknown interest in education and instruction manifested itself, particularly in what is now called pedagogic ability. Since Franké's active exertions in the orphan school at Halle, there exist, particularly in Prussia, teachers, real school-teachers, i. e. persons who do not teach at random or are guided only by tradition and instinct, but who teach with love and intelligence, who take an earnest interest in their business as instructors, who are able to enter into the nature of the young, who hope and expect success as a result of the ability with which they conscientiously perform their duties, and not as an accidental result of favorable circumstances. Thus were the principles found on which the art of teaching, the personal influence of the teachers, and teachers as a class, as it is at present, could be developed.

Franké and his friends, guided probably by what they knew of the pedagogic efforts of Ernest the Pious, in Gotha, by the writings of Ratich, and still more by those of Comenius, now devote themselves with earnest zeal to the thorough education of teachers, mainly indeed for the benefit of those schools that had been established under Franké's superintendence, and which grew visibly larger and increased rapidly in number. These exertions of Franké's attracted the general attention more and more. Men, distinguished for their organizing talents and tendencies, like Frederic William I. and Frederic II., easily comprehended that, if they would call into existence and keep alive hundreds of schools, they should also direct their attention to the means of obtaining teachers, for teachers do not fall from the skies, nor can a supply of them be obtained by those practices which furnished recruits for the army. The patent of 10th November, 1732, is a result of this attention; it contains some restrictions in the admission of schoolmasters, directing that besides tailors, weavers, smiths, wheelwrights and carpenters, no individuals belonging to other classes of tradesmen should be appointed as teachers in country schools, and as sacristans. Again, in the rescript of September 17th, 1738,

* For Franké and the Schools of the Pietist, see Barnard's Am. Jour. of Ed., V. 441

it is said: "that no vagrant tailors and pedlars should be tolerated, and that no tailors should have permission to settle in country places, except as sacristans and schoolmasters;" evidently to secure to these individuals some profits from their trade as tailors.

A preacher named Schinmeyer had opened in Stettin, in 1785, a kind of normal school, at which the king expressed his particular satisfaction; but he considered it of still greater importance to issue an order to abbot Steinmetz of Kloster-Bergen, near Magdeburg, on December 5th, 1786, about the establishment of a normal school at that place. Most prominent in the development of the system of instruction during his reign and that of his heir were the evident beginnings of an organization of the teachers' education, and consequently of a methodical treatment of the objects of instruction, whilst all the other requisites of public schools received due attention in order to maintain and develop them. Thus, issued Frederic William I. (October, 1713,) a royal ordinance, a regulation for the Reformed Evangelic, Presbyterian, Latin, classical and common schools; the first school regulation applied to all the religious creeds mentioned in the whole monarchy, except Mark and Ravensberg.

The Evangelic superintendents and provosts of the Kurmark received in 1715 their instruction concerning visitations. The king decreed in subsequent ordinances a general obligation to attend school, a real blessing which now has grown to be an established habit of the people. Some pedagogic and political fanatics of progress, as well as ultramontane priests of our days, who pass themselves off as the real wardens of the peoples' interests, have had the hardihood to question the legality and usefulness of these ordinances, or even to lament the results which they have produced; and this in spite of the English and French, who prove how slowly the education of the people advances, even in our enlightened age, when the subject of instruction is left to uneducated families. "The superintendents were directed to take the education of able schoolmasters in hand, either by training them themselves or by having them trained under their superintendence by well qualified and pious teachers. Whoever had any knowledge of a good schoolmaster, should inform the superintendent of the fact." But State institutions for the education of teachers were not yet established; their importance was not yet fully realized; they were to spring up spontaneously and with little or no expense.

Having found during his frequent journeys through Prussia and Lithuania that the peasants, particularly in Lithuania, "were in a most deplorable state of ignorance," (July 2d, 1718,) he directed the authorities at Königsberg to assist each other in their efforts, "in order to relieve this ignorance at last." He himself sent for this purpose several commissioners to Lithuania, provided the larger villages with schoolmasters, and gave to each of them some land "free of rent and taxes;" he renewed his orders from time to time, and desired the increase of schools still more emphatically after having induced colonists from different countries, particularly from Salzburg, to settle in his dominions. A long time,

however, passed, before he could publish and execute his "*principia regulativa*," which were henceforth the fundamental laws of the province of Prussia. On their publication (Feb. 21st, 1787,) it was announced "that the king had not only seen with great pity the infidelity and darkness in which the youths in some portions of the kingdom had been living and grown up to their temporal and eternal danger, but that he had also issued instructions from time to time, how to remedy it. Having been unable to attain this end as yet, he had found it necessary to do all in his power to place the youths every where under the guidance of able individuals, and to order that the latter should be provided with the necessities of life; that he had therefore most graciously pleased to give fifty thousand thalers for all time to come, to be employed without diminution for the maintenance of the empire of God." The interests of this capital were to be employed for the proper assistance of those schools which could not raise the money necessary for the sustenance of a schoolmaster, or which from accidents were temporarily unable to do so, and lastly, for the purpose of rendering assistance in the rebuilding of school-houses, destroyed by fire. The administration of this foundation, known by the designation *mons pietatis*, was in the hands of trustees presided over by a minister of State. The interests were distributed by parochial and school commissioners. The *Principia* embraced detailed instructions for those who had to contribute to the building of school-houses, others concerning the schoolmaster's income, and some remarks directed to the nobility and clergy, stating that they were expected to assist in providing for the sustenance of the schoolmaster; from this it may be inferred that those great social interests did not so heartily support the royal intentions as would have been becoming in them. The following paragraph of the *Principia* deserves particular attention, viz.: "The parishes forming school societies were obliged to build school-houses and to keep them in repair; the State to furnish the necessary timber and fire-wood; the expenses for doors, windows, and stoves, to be obtained by collections; every church to pay for the support of the teacher four thalers per annum; every child under instruction from its fourth to its twelfth year, four groschen per annum; the peasants to furnish certain provisions; the teacher to have the right of free pasture for his small stock and some fees from every child confirmed; lastly, the government to pay school-fees when a peasant should send more than one child to school, and to give the teacher one acre of land, which should be tilled by the villagers." It is certainly not necessary to demonstrate the importance of these school regulations, if properly carried out, being issued at a time when the government of scarcely any state of Europe had as yet given impulse to the awakening of an interest in public schools. It is clear, however, that a general and effective execution of these instructions could not be thought of, seeing the utter ignorance of the country people at that period, which prevented them from appreciating public instruction. Innumerable obstacles were to be removed; money was to be raised, to

which both people and nobility were opposed, well qualified teachers were required, who could not be found; and hence the regulation allowed their selection to be made from among the tradesmen, who, at that time, possessed very rarely the proper qualifications. Public education could, therefore, only gradually assert its claims by conquering the prejudices and the ignorance of the people, and an unceasing and energetic attention on the part of the government was required to avoid suspension and to render progress possible.

Frederic William I. having taken possession of an important portion of Pomerania, showed equal solicitude for this country; he provided by special orders for the salary of the schoolmasters; desired that a more regular attendance at school should be enforced; sent several teachers from the Berlin Real-School, and gave even some directions concerning the subject of instruction. "The clergyman shall regulate the method of instruction by the advice of the *præpositus*." "The schoolmaster shall diligently rehearse the minister's catechisation at school, and the minister may cause him to catechise the children in his presence, if he considers him able to do so." The instruction for visitations of town-schools in Pomerania directed the visitors to make such inquiries as would show an active interest in the improvement of the schools. Among others: "Whether unnecessary private primary schools were suffered to exist to the detriment of public schools?" "What suggestions for the improvement of the system of instruction might be offered?" "Whether the vacations were unnecessary and too long?" The "*præpositus*" was required to make all necessary arrangements and give suggestions for the improvement of the system of instruction.

The king issued at the request of the city authorities of Berlin, on October 16th, 1738, a circular of instructions for the private schools in that town and its suburbs, which, having been approved by the highest dignitaries of the church, gives the most correct idea of the condition of schools in cities in that period. This circular is subdivided into five sections: the first treats on the method of instituting schoolmasters; the second on the requisite abilities and qualifications of schoolmasters; the third on their duties; the fourth on their salaries; the fifth on the relation of parents to schools. The ordinances of this able, well-meaning and often misapprehended prince are always in perfect harmony with the immediate wants of the young, with the pecuniary condition of the communities, and with the habits and customs of the country; they fix the salary of the teachers according to the pretensions which, in his life-time, they could have, as a recompense for their probably very moderate accomplishments. The price of a teacher must be necessarily low, when there is no strong popular inclination for learning, as was the case in that time.

Though the king had shown so much earnest and well-meaning solicitude, and though the number of schools had been greatly increased, yet a real development of the system of instruction was not yet effected.

The strict decrees of the government had, however, accustomed the people to accommodate themselves in the matter of education to the expressed will of their sovereign, and to have a certain respect for schools. But the teachers, as a class, did their work mechanically, following, as it were, a beaten track, so easily made; there was no genius as yet in the mechanism of school management.

FREDERIC II.

b. Frederic II. followed the example of his father. Though the war till 1763 would not allow him either time or means to *do* much for the schools, yet he did not lose sight of them even during that period. To remove any doubt from the minds of the patrons and communities as to the continued observance of those ordinances which were so little to their taste, because they imposed on them the support of schools, and which were, therefore, but very partially obeyed, he issued on the 18th October, 1740, 29th October, 1741, and again in the year of peace, on 2d January, 1748, "the regulation concerning the support of the schools established in the villages of Prussia." He did not only direct that new schools should be established, but commanded that the teachers should be provided for, and ordered "that the existing school regulation and the arrangements made in pursuance thereof should be permanent, and that no change should be made under any pretext whatever." The great king showed thus his interest in the development of the schools earnestly and intelligently rather by orders and instructions than by actual pecuniary assistance. He had, however, found in Hecker a real treasure, whose personal influence could effect more, at least for the time being, than the expenditure of money. By the exertions of this meritorious man there had been established, in 1748, to the greatest satisfaction of the king, a Normal School for the Kurmark, in connection with the Berlin Real-school.

When the king established the Lutheran High Consistory, he authorized this branch of government to pay direct attention to the schools, chiefly to those in Kurmark, in order that they might be furnished with able schoolmasters, and that the young be well educated. Thus he intended to make the system of instruction in Kurmark an example and model, to be imitated by the other portions of the monarchy. It was further authorized to draft an instruction for the provincial consistories, "so that it could then be determined how far the noble patrons and government officers had to concur in the appointment of schoolmasters." This amounted to another adjournment of this difficult question, which was still to be solved. The Berlin Normal School, above mentioned, was made in 1753 the centre of the whole system of public education, by the order that all vacancies for royal sacristans and schoolmasters should be filled "by individuals educated in that Normal School." Minden and Ravensberg received special regulation for their country schools.

The solicitude of the government was, during the Seven Years' War,

necessarily limited to the prevention of harm, or to the least possible assistance where the war had done its worst. But the king issued, seven days before the ratification of peace, on the 8th of February, 1763, the order to Mr. Groshopp, director of the supreme court of Kurmark, "that he should direct his attention, after the restoration of peace, to schools;" and on the 12th of February he sent to the minister of state, Count Dankelmann, several good schoolmasters whom he had engaged in Leipzig, with the order to employ and provide for them on his royal estates in Kurmark and Pomerania. Having issued an ordinance at Schweidnitz, March 20th, 1763, "concerning the maintenance of schools," he ordered, on the 1st day of April, that a regulation for all the provinces should be drafted. It was published on the 12th of August, 1763, under the title, "General school regulations for the whole monarchy," which is the basis of the Prussian constitution of public schools to this day. Its essential articles, such as obligation to attend school; beginning and end of the period of this obligation; the fees; the fines for truancy; the obligation of the clergy to visit schools, &c., have been either made portions of subsequent legislation, or are still *de facto* law in all cases in which the latter is considered not sufficient or not applicable. Its tendency is that every thing should be so arranged "that the pernicious ignorance, so contradictory to Christianity, could be removed and prevented, and that in future, abler and better subjects might be educated in schools." Hecker, counselor of the high consistory, is its author, as is generally known; he completed it on the 23d of June, 1763, and sent it to the counselors Sadewasser, Von Irwing, Sack, and Arnold, to take their opinion; it received the countersign of Dankelmann, the minister of state, was dated 12th of August, and became a law by Frederic's signature on the 23d of September, 1763; the king having not only seen it before, but had read and perfected it. This comprehensive document is a masterpiece of completeness, of lucidity, of logical arrangement and tone. The legislator knows perfectly what he aims at, says it very plainly and without reserve, and every subject of the State can clearly see what he is required to do. The regulations are not behind their age, but at its height, and vitalize all the pedagogic intelligence acquired and experience accumulated at that time. They do not relieve the subjects of any obligations; on the contrary they set them a task which required some exertion; but they are at the same time kind and well meaning. Nothing is vague; they aim at definite results. They are not regulations which admitted of no change, but provided for progress in due time. They are, indeed, no utopian and illusive school organization, such as the fancy pedagogium was, which pervaded the world in a subsequent period; they are the expression of the matured and earnest royal will, adapted to the real condition of the country, and therefore Frederic may well call them "a constitution for the country schools in all his provinces."

This general regulation for country schools consists, beside preface and

concluding remarks, of twenty-six articles. Articles one to eleven aim at a proper organization of a community of pupils, viz. : one to five, attendance at school ; seven to eight, payment of school fees and provisions for the children of the really poor ; nine to eleven, provisions to enforce regular attendance at school, either by persuasion or by severe punishment. Articles twelve and thirteen contain regulations for the patrons concerning the appointment of teachers. Article fourteen institutes an examination, to which teachers before their appointment should be subjected. For the royal schools in district towns and villages, only such teachers are to be appointed who have been, at least for some time, pupils of the sacristans' and schoolmaster's normal school of Kurmark, in Berlin, and who have acquired there practical knowledge of silk industry and of the method of school-keeping as practiced in the German schools of Trinity church. Article fifteen prohibits all private primary schools on the penalty of a fine. Article sixteen treats on the life and conduct of the schoolmaster. Beginning with article seventeen, there follow regulations concerning the plan of lessons, entering into the detail of this subject. Article twenty treats on the text-books to be used, "because the country has become inundated by all sorts of text-books, particularly by commentaries to the catechism and by so-called roads to salvation ; and because every clergyman selects text-books according to his likings, or compiles them himself and has them printed. Article twenty-two treats of proper discipline ; article twenty-three of Sunday laws for schools ; article twenty-four, relative position of schoolmaster and pastor ; article twenty-five, regulations for the pastors : "Any pastor who, contrary to expectation, should be found slow and negligent in his visitations of the schools, and in his attendance to the duties imposed on him by these regulations, &c., shall be suspended for a certain time *cum effectu*, or even discharged from his office, according to circumstances." Article twenty-six gives instruction for superintendents and other school authorities concerning circuits and visitations and reports on them. "And we command that this shall be unfailingly done, in order to report incapable schoolmasters to the high consistory, and to remove the ignorance of the peasantry, as well as to save the young from perdition."

The High Consistory had expected great difficulties, even before publishing these regulations, particularly "on account of the very small salaries and perquisites of the schoolmasters," and they had not deceived themselves. The authorities in Neumark reported the impossibility of taking action upon them, and gave a description of the miserable condition of the country-schools. The commission at Geldern reported that the regulations had been transmitted to the two Protestant clergymen in Geldern and Vierssen only, the whole district being Roman Catholic. From the Magdeburg district, anonymous complaints came in that the regulations had made the peasants refractory, that the latter had resolved to discontinue the payment of the "fine" to the schoolmasters, if they would claim higher school-fees. The court at Minden forbid their publi-

cation, and prayed that the school regulations of 1754 might be suffered to remain in force. The High Consistory in Breslau suggested a modified school regulation for Sillesia, where essential improvements in the system of instruction had been effected since 1756, which would be endangered by the new regulations; these suggestions were approved of. The archives offer nothing to show how they were accepted in Pomerania. But it may be presumed that they encountered there, too, many obstacles, though they have found more obedience in that province than any where else, down to our time. Thus the general and effective working of the new regulations was not only delayed and made powerless, but it became necessary to submit them to several alterations and modifications.

The necessity of providing in a similar manner for town-schools became soon evident. The High Consistory was authorized to investigate into their condition, and it was ordered that henceforth no teacher of a town-school in Kurmark should be appointed or rise to a higher position without the knowledge and consent of the High Consistory. This body was also invested with the power to dismiss lazy, inefficient, and immoral teachers. But the following circumstances threw almost insurmountable impediments in the way of a rapid and effective progress, intended by the humane king, and of the action of the ecclesiastic department: 1, Not only the patrons, town authorities, and landed proprietors, but also a large portion of the clergy, and some executive officers, were unwilling to lend their assistance; 2, The want of good pedagogues and of good educational establishments for them; 3, The miserable provisions for the salaries of teachers. To correct these embarrassments, the king decreed that the interest on the large sums of money which he allowed Pomerania, for the purpose of the improvement of agriculture, (the first few years without interest, and later at a small percentage,) should be devoted to the improvement of schools. From these moneys the charitable school-fund was formed, which produces the best effects in that province even at the present time. At the same time he directed that 100,000 thalers should be invested for the benefit of Kurmark, and that the four per cent. interest which it produced should be expended for the amelioration of the schools and salaries. The king took also for a long time great interest in the success of his benevolent intentions, inquired from time to time what progress had been made, and desired a detailed report. Having received it after repeated admonitions, he sent, on the 2d February, 1769, a cabinet order to the minister of state, Von Münchhausen, in which he directed his attention to the country schools, desired "a comprehensible and more sensible instruction in religion, to guide the intellectual faculties of children and of peasants, and to give them a clearer idea of their duties," (Beckedorf, p. 42, 43.) "It is however not probable that the difficulties to be overcome were reported to the king to their full extent. On the contrary, it appears that a more favorable condition was reported to him. There exists, at least, a remarkable correspondence between the ecclesiastic department and the director of the consistory at Stettin, in

which it is suggested to institute improvements mainly in places situated on those roads on which the king used to travel, when he was inspecting his army, and to pay particular attention to the villages on the road and half mile (Prussian) distant either way, in which the king used to change post-horses. Thus princes are flattered, to use the mildest expression," (Beckedorf.) The king appears to have paid much attention to pedagogic affairs in 1769. He had, on several occasions, written on education; in that year he wrote a letter (*sur l'éducation*, Works 1848, IX. 113-299,) on education in Prussia. This letter was published in 1770, and sent by the king to the minister of state, Von Münchhausen, with the order to call the attention of the University to it, (Confr. A Tredlenberg, Frederic the Great, Berlin, 1859, p. 7.) But whether the king felt the same interest in schools towards the end of his reign, is a question which Mr. Beckedorf declines to answer. For on the 31st of July, 1779, an order was quite unexpectedly sent to the department of ecclesiastic affairs, "enjoining that, if there were among the invalids any who could read, write and cypher, were qualified for the office of schoolmaster at country schools, and were otherwise not objectionable, they should be employed at those schools where the king paid the salary, &c." Twenty-one years previous to that date, the king's resolution of July 9th, 1758, had decreed that the office of sacristans and schoolmasters should *not* be counted among those reserved for invalids. How earnestly the king and his minister, Baron Zedlitz, desired to improve the system of instruction, particularly in the Mark and more especially in Berlin, may be learned from the correspondence of this minister with the prebendary Von Rochow.*

When the king had conquered Silesia and annexed it to his monarchy, he intrusted a minister of state, appointed for this purpose, with its administration. The other provinces were equally governed, according to their original constitutions. Many arrangements were made to give assistance, strength and extension to the Evangelic churches and schools. Such were, the patent of notification of January 15th, 1742, concerning the organization of the secular and ecclesiastic courts in the duchy of Lower Silesia; the organization of the Evangelic-Lutheran inspections and presbyteries for the duchy of Silesia, Sept. 20th, 1742; and particularly the circular of Dec. 13th, 1759, issued at Breslau and directed to all vassals and inhabitants of the districts, and to the magistrates of the department, concerning the amelioration of schools in towns and in the country. The accession of a great number of Roman Catholic subjects compelled Frederic II. to consider that many paragraphs of the general country school organization could not be acceptable to Catholic inhabitants, and to devise some general organization of public instruction, which he found either altogether neglected, or, as in a few places, just beginning to show some signs of life. At Sagan arose, a hundred years ago, the necessity of reconstructing the Catholic parish school, connected with the Convent of the Augustines, so that the most distinguished individ-

* Confr. *Literary Correspondence, &c.*, by Fr. Eb. v. Rochow, 1779, Berlin, pp. 115-117.

uals of that community should no longer be compelled to send their children into the better-conducted Lutheran school. John Ignaz von Felbiger,* then (1762) abbot of the convent, having read some books published by the Berlin Real-school, and sent to him occasionally by a bookseller, was induced to go to Berlin in order to see with his own eyes "how far the excellent precepts of the book mentioned (3d vol. of the revised school book, Berlin, 1758,) were acted upon. He convinced himself that the method of instruction was excellent, became Hecker's friend, devised the best means for its application in Sagan, sent two able young men to Hecker to be instructed by him, employed them at the school in Sagan after having acquired the requisite knowledge, reformed the school according to the principles obtaining at Berlin, and had the satisfaction of seeing it soon in successful activity. The Sagan school reform was, by accidental circumstances, introduced into the town of Frankenstein. Yet, though it had taken root in two Silesian towns, it was far from being accepted by the Catholic population in the whole province.

Whilst the king had been occupied with the idea of issuing some regulations concerning the establishment and improvement of the system of instruction in the Catholic schools, his minister, Von Haberndorf, received, in 1764, information of the reform that had taken place in Sagan. He wrote at once to Felbiger: "Assuming, right reverend sir, that you have made the method of the real-school in Berlin successfully applicable to the Catholic country-schools, I request you to send me five or six copies of your plan, that I may use them according to circumstances." The minister had this regulation for the village schools belonging to the convent of Sagan, and some other papers, printed and distributed among all Roman Catholic priests for their instruction and guidance. He communicated the organization of the city-schools in Sagan to the royal board at Breslau, ordered that they should carry them into effect as police laws, and directed the abbot to apply to the board for anything he might consider necessary. The board took the matter in hand with circumspection and zeal. It issued a decree (November 12th, 1764,) to the episcopal vicar, according to which, *a*, Normal schools should be established; *b*, every new pastor should pay the first quarter of his revenue to defray the expenses; *c*, he should be obliged to qualify himself in a normal school for the proper management of schools; *d*, till such normal schools had been established, he should go to Sagan to familiarize himself there with the reformed method of instruction, and prove his having done so by a certificate; *e*, every candidate for orders should be under the same obligation, and should not receive the permission to become a clergyman before he had produced such a certificate.

Thus the Catholic schools received an impulse all at once. The chief normal school was solemnly inaugurated, November 4th, 1765, and is still in flourishing condition; somewhat later the secondary normal schools at Leubus, Grüssen, Rauden, Ratibor and Habelschwerdt. There is an in-

* See Barnard's *Am. Jour. of Ed.*, IX. p. 590.

teresting narrative of these affairs by K. Borman in *Schulbl. f. d. Prov. Brandenburg*, 1859, "*The Berlin Real school and the Catholic schools in Silesia and Austria*;" also Felbiger's letters to Rochow. The king, having addressed a preliminary order on the 20th of March to the vicar-general, Maurice von Strachwitz, issued, November 3d, 1765, a special regulation, known by its title, "the Catholic school organization," which has become a very important document for the organization of instruction in Prussia generally. It has more likely been prompted by Hecker, than by abbot Von Felbiger. This document plainly shows the skill with which all the improvements made in elementary schools were taken advantage of. The organization of public instruction, to be effected in Roman Catholic schools, was thus based on one simple law, whilst the Evangelic public schools were under the influence of various circumstances, and obliged to treat the patrons, particularly, with great discretion. The relations of abbot Felbiger to Hecker's Berlin Real-school, rendered it possible to accept at once all the important experiences in teaching and school education gained there, and to apply them to the public schools, now for the first time established in Silesia.*

It was principally the president of the High Consistory, Von Seydlitz, who distinguished himself during the reign of Frederic the Great by his activity in favor of the Evangelic public schools in Silesia.† The Evangelic normal school in Breslau had been opened in 1767 with insufficient means, and had been able to keep alive only by the private exertions of Rambach, the counselor of the Consistory at that place. Seventeen hundred candidates have been educated there from 1787 to 1815.

Count Hoym, minister of state for Silesia in 1799, made a report to the king, Frederic William III., on the condition of the Catholic schools in Silesia. "The instruction of the children of the upper classes, and, in general, of every one who intends to acquire more knowledge than the first elements, is exclusively in the hands of the Jesuits, who devote themselves to it from obedience to the rules of their order. They teach Latin and rhetoric in a very mechanical manner, and the character of their schools is like that of the schools in the rest of Catholic Europe. No attempt is made to instruct a boy who does not intend to embrace a learned profession; useful knowledge, living languages, literature, &c., are not taught at all. There is in Breslau a so-called university, but only for theology and philosophy; there are colleges and classical schools in Oppeln, Neisse, Glatz, Sagan and Glogau." The Pope dissolved the order in 1773, but Frederic II. did not allow the bull to be published in his realm, because he considered the priests necessary for the instruction of his Catholic subjects. This opinion was perfectly correct, as pedagogy had made little progress among the Catholics, and no schools were in existence to take the place of the extinct order. A school regulation for the Jesuits in Silesia was published in 1774, in agreement with the re-

* Conf. K. A. Menzel, *the three Prussian school regulations*, 2d edit., Breslau, 1839, p. vii. to ix.

† Conf. the school counselor on the Oder, p. 119.

quirements of the age. Frederic II. consented to the dissolution of the Order, as such, in the year 1777, but allowed its existence under the name of "priests of the school institution;" many of its members became secular priests. The direction of the school affairs was intrusted to the minister of state, Von Carmer, and subsequently, Von Dankelmann; the whole property of the Order was under the administration of the government, and superintended by a special board. The condition of the schools remained, however, just as it had been. The real estate of the Order was sold, (1788,) under the reign of Frederic William II, and the capital thus obtained was placed under the administration of the Breslau government.

Minister of state Von Hoym very justly found fault with the schools, because "the young man who wanted to obtain more than the elementary school instruction, without intending to prepare for a university course, was compelled to learn much which was perfectly useless for his future career, and which had a tendency to render any occupation, such as agriculture or trade, perfectly loathsome to him." He advised to appoint a lay director for the pedagogic branch. The colleges, or what was called lower schools, to distinguish them from the universities, should be of two different kinds, one for the practical professions, and one for those young men who intended to read up for the university. The normal school, which was under the superintendence of the Vicar-general, should be connected with these schools; opportunity being thus offered to obtain practical experience in teaching, and to educate able village schoolmasters. "These suggestions," said Hoym, "were not only offered with a view to Silesia, but also to the recently acquired Polish provinces." The organization of public schools in those districts which Frederic II. had acquired by the first division of Poland, and which were called West Prussia, was comparatively easy, by treating them according to the *Principia regulativa*, "because the greater portion of those districts had been governed, before annexation, almost by the same laws as the province of Prussia." The regulation of 1782, for the German Reformed schools in the duchies of Cleves and Mark, prove the progress made by the administration, keeping with earnest perseverance their attention fixed on public education, and showing a better understanding of the objects and means by harmonizing public instruction with the increasing general civilization.

Eberhard von Rochow and other private efforts.

2. Having hurried a few years in advance of the chronological order, to complete the narrative of the activity of an official, and of the development of public instruction in a province, I return to Frederic II, and appeal to the reader's indulgence, if he should find, now and then, some repetitions; they could not well be avoided, without withholding from him communications about the contemporaries of the persons already introduced to him.

Whilst so much official activity was developed in the realm of Frederic

II, there was, in other parts of Germany, especially in the immediate neighborhood of Prussia, a great private activity, which originally arose from opposition to the Pietism in Halle—I mean the philanthropic movement in Dessau. Moreover, men like Hecker, Resewitz, Gedike, &c., active teachers and reformers of higher schools, had scattered a seed which produced, during the last ten years of Frederic's reign, a large number of teachers of wide and lasting influence, under the protection of minister Von Zedlitz. The idea of enlightened humanity, in harmony with the spirit of the age, principally characterized them, and could not but exercise gradually an influence upon the people. But the people, taken as a whole, were still indifferent to all official measures tending to popularize education; it was a multitude in the bonds of traditional usages, of grossness and thoughtlessness, not willing to be instructed. Even *ecclesiastio ephori* and noble patrons, the latter in consequence of their privileges as landlords, caused difficulties which rendered it impossible to carry out the humane intentions of Frederic's government. And yet the genius of civilization succeeded in enlightening here and there the people. Canon Eberhard von Rochow is, among the noblemen of the Mark, the one who applied himself earnestly and with the deliberation of a statesman to the task of making the common people partakers of the blessings of a civilization which, under Frederick's sceptre, had become general among the upper classes of his country, and of most parts of Germany. He chose the safest way. He established well conducted and sufficiently endowed schools, and taught the people thus by facts, by experience, and by intuition, that education leads to their prosperity. He wrote books, devised better methods of teaching, and gave much thought to the manner how to procure a better instruction for teachers. It seemed as if a period of a different character was approaching; yet before it arrived, a temporary relapse took place.*

Superior School Board.

8. The solicitude for public instruction continued during the first years of the reign of Frederic William II. And it was much needed, for how little the wise and humane intentions of Frederic II. had taken effect, was shown by the condition of Vor and Hinterpommern, at that time already parts of Prussia, described by the minister of state, Von Massow, in his very detailed report (1787) on the constitution of the schools in the duchy of Pomerania,† while he was still first president of the government and of the consistory in Stettin. Having given a short sketch of the strangest kind of superintendence of the schools in that province, he describes the nature and the character “of the Pomeranian nation.” He mentions many praiseworthy peculiarities, but finds it then necessary to call attention to some evil ones, which compelled the government to act with great circumspection, and which made it so difficult to attempt any innovation. “The Pomeranian peasant,” wrote Massow, (1787.) “is so obstinate that he will do absolutely nothing, when he has made up

* Confr. A. F. Buesching, description of his journey to Rekahne. 2d edit., 1780.

† *Annals, Von Gedike*, 1800, p. 69.

his mind, except by compulsion. He neither sends his children regularly to school, nor does he pay taxes to church or school. The present adult population, in some places, at least, requires compulsion." He then suggests measures, both in harmony with the spirit of the age and with discretion, calculated to produce a gradual change of their condition; lastly, he gives a list of the village schools. He pronounces all to be in a very bad state, except the eighty-six charity schools, i. e. those which received an additional income from the royal exchequer. He goes on to state that the consistory had tried in vain to make the *præpositi* attend to their duties, and closes with a description of the most miserable condition of the province. He particularly denounces the country synod of the *præpositus* of Treptow on the Rega, and that of Cammin, as being most neglected. "In those places, the peasants have so-called 'gang-schools,' that is, they engage, mostly for the winter only, an individual, not examined by the *præpositus*, as teacher, and this individual is very frequently the same who takes charge of the cattle during the summer.

The Board of Education was established in Berlin as early as 1787, placed under the direction of Baron von Zedlitz, furnished with the most liberal instructions, and invested with the most ample power. This was certainly a proof that education and instruction were to be held in the highest estimation in Prussia. Suggesting the propriety of establishing this Board (January 8d, 1787,) to the king, Baron von Zedlitz said: "For I think that the administration of public instruction should not be left as a secondary office, either in charge of a single man, who is sufficiently occupied with other official duties, or of the consistories, who rarely know any thing of the peculiar wants of the provinces and of the industrial classes; but that a Board should be established, whose members are not engaged with any thing but the direction of public instruction." "The direction has hitherto been left to the arbitrary will of the minister of state, at the head of that department. Should I die or resign, my successor must begin with obtaining the proper knowledge of this branch of his official activity." Zedlitz wished to render it unnecessary to begin over and over again; therefore he suggested the establishment of the Board. He proposed as members of this Board, Wöllner, Meierotto, Gedike, Rochow, Steinbart of Frankfurt on the Oder, and Chancellor Hoffmann of Halle, "distinguished for his ingenuity in disciplinary arrangements."* He says, in his plan of a school reform: "If it be true that the object of school teaching is to render men better and to make them more fit for practical life, it is unjust to allow the peasant to grow up like a beast, to make him learn by rote some phrases, the meaning of which is never explained to him; and it is foolish to educate a future tailor, joiner, or grocer, like a future counselor of a consistory or a school director, compelling them each and all equally to study Latin," &c. As proper subjects for lessons in village schools, he proposed, among others, "dietetic rules and hygiene," that the peasant may in future no longer

* Von Zedlitz's manuscript.

consider gin to be a nostrum, that he may pass by the quack, and that he should know when to ask the advice of a physician.

The Board was instructed to examine the candidates for the office of teachers, to appoint none but such as had passed examination, and it was deemed necessary to state that these instructions interfered in no way with the privileges of patrons, because the law required them also to appoint none as justices and clergymen who had not passed examination. The general code for the country, which was published, February 5th, 1794, declared schools and universities to be State institutions, and laid down the principles of the statute law for schools, which have been in force to the present day. The religious orthodoxy, which was unexpectedly introduced by minister Wöllner, had also its effect on the schools, as it caused the publication of "the circular to all school inspectors of Kurmark," which has been frequently condemned with great partiality and passion. It is true that the circular was opposed to the so-called "Neology," which was favored by many higher and lower schools at that time, and that all candidates were compelled to sign it before they could receive an appointment as teachers. Yet the decree of December 18th, 1794, was not wanting in directions which proved to be very expedient, and which put the benevolence and wisdom of the government beyond all doubt.

"The common and elementary schools in towns, and the village schools," says Bassewitz,* "were every where bad. There was but one educational establishment for schoolmasters of the Lutheran faith in Kurmark," (which has been mentioned before,) "besides the French normal school in Berlin." The schoolmasters, amounting scarcely to one-sixth of the number needed, and these very insufficiently educated, produced, therefore, very little effect, as experience proved. The greater portion of the others, employed in the villages, were either altogether without education, (except those few who had received some instruction by their pastors, who taught them according to their own private views and their capacity,) or they were even taken from among invalids, tailors, watchmen, and herdsmen. Although they were compelled to submit to an examination by the pastor of their parish, as ordered by the ecclesiastical inspector; yet the circumstances in which the village schoolmasters were compelled to live were so miserable, that the authorities were glad when they found any person willing to accept such a position. The examination was therefore conducted with such an extreme indulgence, particularly in the districts of private patrons, that it would have been perfectly unjustifiable under any different circumstances. No wonder that the peasants' children grew up without sufficient instruction, and as unlike Christians as possible, and that the parents, too, lived in gross ignorance and even immorality.† Rochow's few schools were the only exceptions.

* "The Kurmark Brandenburg, its condition and administration immediately before the French war, in October, 1806." Leipzig, 1847, p. 342, sqq.

† L. B. Baumann, on the deficiencies in the constitution of the country in Kurmark Brandenburg. Potsdam, 1796, p. 79, sqq.

"In boroughs and towns, the condition was not much better than in villages. The elementary schools in middle-sized towns even had but one class, common for boys and girls; the magistrates did very little for the improvement of the condition of schools and teachers. Better were the so-called Latin schools, when candidates for ordination had accepted the rectorate. Learned teachers conducted their instruction sometimes with particular predilection for that which was perfectly useless, and thus gave occasion to the reproach of the over-education of youths of the lower classes. To prevent such abuses, a special decree was published, August 31st, 1799.

Attempts were made to improve the sad condition of village schoolmasters, but without result. Imitating Frederic II, and Frederic William II, the minister of state, Count Von Sterzberg, tried to do something favorable to village schools, by encouraging the raising of silk-worms, opening thus to the schoolmaster an expedient by which he might possibly ameliorate his miserable condition. All village schoolmasters, who could procure a proper locality, occupied themselves at this time (1796,) with silk culture, and gained thus an annual increase of income amounting to ten, twenty, even thirty thalers, and more.* But being occupied in this manner, they neglected their proper occupation.

C. Frederic William III.

1. "King Frederic William III. was not," writes Bassewitz from Erleben, "under the influence of minister Wöllner's religious principles, which had been predominant in his father's reign; this manifested itself immediately after his accession to the throne, November 16th, 1797. He issued a cabinet order to the minister of state, November 23d, 1797, which contained directions how the officers of the civil branch were expected to conduct themselves, and how their conduct should be controlled. Minister Wöllner instructed hereupon, December 5th, 1797, the high consistory accordingly, and desired that they should, personally or through their subordinates, watch all clergymen, schoolmasters, sacristans, &c., in order to ascertain "whether they taught religion according to the precepts of the edict concerning religion, and whether they diligently devoted themselves to their official duties in church and school."

"The circular which the consistory of Kurmark issued in consequence of this direction, December 22d, 1797, to all the ecclesiastic inspectors, fell into the king's hands, who (January 8th, 1798,) required information why this addition had been made, for which there could not be found the slightest reason in his order. Having received an answer, the king sent Wöllner the remarkable cabinet order, (January 11th, 1798,) in which he reprimanded him for his proceedings, and expressed his own religious opinions in very precise words, desiring that the minister's conduct should conform itself to them."†

No essential change took place during the earliest period of the reign of Frederic William III; but a breath of liberality, though much more

* Baumann, p. 74. † Confr. Von Bassewitz, Kurmark, p. 267.

moderate than at Zedlitz's time, revived the hope for better days. Preparations were made to assist in the development of schools; people began publicly to express their opinions on the present condition of schools. The counselor of the high consistory, Sack, wrote "on the improvement of village schools, especially of those in Kurmark Brandenburg, Berlin, in 1799," and exposed the following principal defects: 1, Want of bread, to which many schoolmasters were exposed; unfitness and ignorance of many who kept school; 2, miserable and unsuitable condition of the school-houses; 3, irregular and very negligent attendance at school. This well meaning official considered himself justified (1799,) in writing, (p. 57 :) "I venture to doubt that reading is so very useful to peasants, and particularly to the women, and contend that the advantages which they may derive from—necessarily deficient—skill in reading, are not in proportion to the trouble to attain it," &c. Thus wrote a man who represented the civilization of a nation in the highest board of the country, a clergyman of high position, who ought to have been anxious that the peasants, too, should be able to read Bible and hymn-book. But fortunately not all members of the consistory thought so. "More was done," remarks Von Bassewitz. "The king dismissed minister Von Wöllner, (March 11th, 1798,) as well as the counselors Hermes and Hillmer, and the commission on ecclesiastical affairs was discontinued at the same time. In Wöllner's place, Von Massow, president in Stettin, was appointed, April 2d, 1798, as minister of justice; to whom the administration of the Lutheran ecclesiastical and school affairs was transferred. The Reformed and Catholic schools remained organized as special branches."

Von Massow—Uniformity of Plan.

2. This new minister was of an excellent disposition, steady, industrious; had thorough knowledge of the law, and most certainly the best intentions; but he was not considered equal to his task, to revive and improve church and school, as the noble and enlightened king wished; the administration was too complicated. People complained that he did not put ecclesiastics like counselors Teller, Zöllner, and Sack, (later bishop) in their proper places, and avail himself of their services; they were generally known as men of experience and Christian character, who would have been very efficient and useful, but who had been kept in the background by the originators of the religious edict; it was further remarked, that he gathered around himself clergymen, well meaning, Christian and respectable enough, but who were unfit to carry the necessary reforms into effect. The authorities showed want of active zeal and vigorous sympathy, so that nothing essential was done. So much of this characteristic of Massow's administration is certainly true, that nothing essential had been done down to his resignation, in 1806. But this was not the result of the minister's want of activity and judgment, but of the political circumstances of the time, which grew worse and worse; of the want of men qualified for school administration; of the increasing extension of the state toward the East, (Poland,) which checked its in-

ternal development; and of the absolute confusion in the highest branches of the administration. Minister Von Massow inspected the Saxon parts of the country, as well as Eastern and Western Prussia, and reported on their condition in the most thorough and practical manner; but he belonged to that class of super-active chiefs of bureau who want to do every thing themselves, trust nothing to others, and who therefore miss the proper moment at which something practical might have been done. He reflected so much that no time was left to begin the practical application.

The king gave Massow full instructions (July 3d, 1798,) concerning the establishment of city and village schools, and of a reformation of Church and State, and desired him to make suggestions for the better organization of elementary schools. The king declared that "the schools in his monarchy were objects which deserved all his attention and solicitude." "It is therefore time, at last, to make provisions for a better education and instruction of the children of citizens and peasants." "The plan should be uniform for all the provinces, and this can not provoke any prejudice against it." "The king expressed the greatest confidence in the minister and in the members of the board of education. Massow communicated to the king (March 16th, 1799,) a preliminary report, ("remarks on school reform,") and based on it a plan for organization." "The object of reform," said he, "is national education, and its field of operation, therefore, all the provinces of the monarchy"—hence also the recently acquired Polish districts! At the same time, he called attention to the necessity of a liberal pecuniary assistance, and to the great obstacles which resulted from the want of unity in the school administration, several ministers being charged with it for the several religious creeds and provinces. Thus the elementary schools in South Prussia, West Prussia, Anspach, and Bcyreuth, were under the administration of their respective provincial ministers; the elementary schools in Silesia under an especial president, and the school of miners under the minister of the mining department. The king gave his assent (March 15th, 1799,) to these suggestions in general, and to the preliminary arrangements; he further granted an additional sum of 6,058 thalers for the schools of Kurmark, of which 1,000 thalers were to be reserved for the establishment of schools of industry. In the final report, made February 10th, 1801, which was a plan for the general improvement of schools, the minister requested the king's permission to take the advice of the respective ministers and of the grand chancellor, and to transmit the school regulations to the law commission. He also gave his opinion on the proper school books, on an appropriation for the enlargement of school-houses and for wood, and on the method of collecting the school-fees according to the peculiarities of the different provinces." The minister aims in this very instructive document, reserved in the archives, at a plan for a national education. "The king reserved his decision on this plan, on these suggestions, and on the appropriations, but consented to

the payment of 6,058 thalers, and desired a more thorough examination of the condition of the schools in the different provinces, by commissioners of the different departments of the administration, (May 23d, 1801.) The minister made all necessary arrangements, yet the reports on these inspections have most likely never reached the king, and as several ministers suggested for their respective departments different plans for the improvement of elementary schools, no uniformity could be attained, and no resolution on the main question had been reached when the war broke out in the autumn of 1806."

The king signed (March 18th, 1801,) a regulation for the Catholic common schools in Silesia, and (August 31st, 1805,) for the town schools of Newpreussen, countersigned by the ministers of state, Von Schroetter, Von Goldbeck, and Von Massow. The former* was a modification and completion of the Catholic school regulation, in harmony with the requirements of the age and the benevolent intentions of Frederic William III. The endeavor to procure a better salary than hitherto for the schoolmasters, to regulate the school inspections and to improve the system of instruction, are evident in it; but the attention which the more and more hostile foreign country in the West required, did not allow the government either the necessary leisure or the means to introduce any thorough and lasting reform, though its necessity was perfectly understood." Yet the negotiations between the king and the provincial ministers show that even in that period, he attributed great importance to a well regulated public instruction." "Thus he dispatched Voss, minister of the originally Polish South Prussia, school inspector Joseph Jeziorowsky, from South Prussia to Pestalozzi, in Burgdorf, (the first connection which the government sought with him,) and to Olivier, in Dessau, to obtain intimate acquaintance with their schools and methods of teaching. After Jeziorowsky's return, Voss found himself induced to make a verbal report to the king, December 17th, 1803, and to explain how the results of these investigations could be made applicable to the elementary schools and the instruction of teachers in his province. The cabinet order of December 31st, 1803, contained the objections which the monarch made to Voss's plan; it stated what he wanted to be taught in elementary schools, and how normal schools should be arranged. The minister hereupon (January 13th, 1804,) assured him in his report, that he had never intended any thing else but what the king had stated in his cabinet order. This explanation satisfied the king, and he recommended in his order of January 19th, 1804, to avoid all compulsion in the introduction of said method of instruction."

Minister Von Schroetter remarked, in his school regulation for New East Prussia, (December 24th, 1804,) that the instruction in religion for the different confessions were not given in the schools themselves, but by the clergymen of the different confessions, and that good text-books were needed. The king therefore directed (January 31st, 1805,) the ecclesias-

* Confr. Von Roenne.

tical minister of Lutheran affairs to cause a Reader to be compiled for the Evangelic schools, which should contain a good abstract of the Bible according to Luther's translation, not changing his powerful diction, and also a collection of examples from sacred history, for the education of the heart. He moreover directed him to make a collection of hymns and prayers, of such a character that they might be used in schools by children of all religious denominations. The counselors of the consistory, Sack, Hecker, Ribbeck, and Hanstein, were commissioned to compile the Reader, and parson Wilson, the Prayer-book. The result of their labors had not yet been presented to the king, when the war commenced. It will be seen, from the preceding remarks, that Frederic William III had, till 1806 and 1807, sufficiently shown his benevolent intentions to promote a Christian and moral sense among the inhabitants of his realm, to reform churches and schools, and had clearly enough pointed out the means to attain this end. Yet it will be also seen that the government had not yet succeeded in approaching the goal, except in some minor detail, or even to prepare what was necessary to attain it."*

The number of the existing elementary and common schools in the larger cities, particularly in Berlin, were by no means sufficient to accommodate all the children entitled to attend school; a large number of the children of the lower classes remained without instruction, whilst those of the wealthier parents were sent to private establishments. The schools were, in consequence of their small number, so crowded, that the children could neither be kept properly separate, nor sufficiently attended to, whence they learned but little. The best elementary instruction for both boys and girls in Berlin and other large cities, was obtained in some (not all) private schools, in which the sexes were kept separate, and which consisted of several classes each; government had, however, little control over them.

"Private individuals had, since 1799, collected money in Berlin, and succeeded in establishing some Sunday-schools for the education of journeymen and apprentices. Several persons had also joined in 1803 for the purpose of educating teachers for elementary schools in towns. A teacher of the name of Michaëlis took the lead; by the intercession of the counselors Zeller, Zöllner, and Sack, the king's permission was obtained, March 1st, 1804, to establish a school for this purpose, which could, however, effect little till 1806. Several large towns had established what were called middle schools, and, for higher educational purposes, classical schools, (*Gymnasien*.)" Thus reports the late president, Von Bassewitz, in a retrospective on the condition of the past. What views his contemporaries had will be learned from the following remarks.

Middle or Intermediate Schools.

4. When Frederic William III had ascended the throne, the friends and promoters of instruction—as Gedike writes in the dedication of his "Annals of the Prussian School and Church," Vol. II, 1800—saw that a happier day was dawning upon the neglected schools. He prophesied :

* Von Bassewitz.

"A prince, who is the creator of an improved national education, does not only live for posterity, but undoubtedly also in posterity." Von Massow, the minister of state and of justice, intrusted by the king with the direction of the ecclesiastic and educational department, was considered to be an enthusiastic friend of public education, perfectly understanding what could be done for its promotion at that moment. When still president of the government of a province, he had made himself intimately acquainted with the miserable condition of the schools in Pomerania; this is proved by his report of the government of Pomerania, (published in the "Annals," Vol. II, pp. 69 to 114,) and by an essay on D. Henry Stephani's book, (Outlines of the Science of National Education, 1797,) which he published as "Reflections on the Improvements of Public Instruction and Education with especial regard to Pomerania."

The consistory of Kurmark, being the provincial board of education of which Von Schewe, Gedike, Sack, Zöllner, Hecker, and other men of high reputation were members, did not only understand the causes of the then existing deficiencies in public education, but they also pointed them out very plainly, together with such remedies as a time permitted which was both devoid of means or parsimonious, and poor in properly educated teachers. The board admits "that the inner condition of the schools needed great reforms, but that they could be more easily effected than the improvement of the material condition; it further admitted that the reform of the schools ought not only to be prepared, but actually introduced by the employment of able teachers, thoroughly educated in normal schools, which should be enlarged and improved. But really able teachers could only be procured when the material condition of the schools had been considerably improved." This is a correct verdict on the condition of the village schools. The sum of 24,000 thalers, which were required to raise the salary of the schoolmaster to 120 thalers a year in the royal domains of Kurmark, appears to have awed them! There was no chance to raise the salary above that fixed by the general regulations of 1768.

The consistory suggested that the number of clergymen should be diminished and several parishes concentrated into one, in order to obtain the means of aiding the schools! A suggestion which must appear strange enough to us. The consistory divided the town-schools into three classes: elementary schools with one teacher, common schools with at least two or three teachers, and middle schools. We meet here for the first time in an official document, this not very comprehensible denomination, used even in our days. The board defines them as schools at which three or more teachers are employed, and in whose higher classes the scholars are either prepared for the university, or receive at least an education superior to the wants of common citizens. The school statistics of 1799 mention not more than six middle schools in Kurmark. The number of all the schools together amounted to sixteen hundred and fifty.

The want of schools for girls, particularly in towns, "for daughters

of the educated classes," is remarked on by Gedike in a pamphlet bearing the naïve title: "Has the Prussian State too many or too few schools?" "Where can female teachers be found who combine both knowledge and talent for teaching? They are as yet rare indeed, but there ought to be normal schools for female teachers, just as well as there are for male teachers." Miss Ernestine von Krosigk, who is mentioned as a belletristic celebrity of that time, had the courage to establish in Berlin (1804,) an institute for governesses, encouraged by the king. She had educated several efficient governesses for private schools as early as August, 1806, and addressed the request to the king to convert several charitable foundations into schools for girls. The minister had to report on this petition, but though he promised to take it into favorable consideration, a reply has never been given, in consequence of the distressing time. Director B. M. Snethlage, in Hamm, acknowledged, like Gedike, that more ought to be done for the girls, in a pamphlet (1800,) "on the transformation of Latin schools into real-schools, and on the educational institutions for girls connected with them;" he timidly hints at some means by which such schools could be cheaply procured. There was at that time almost nowhere an opportunity for proper instruction in needle-work. The industrial schools, whose establishment had been contemplated by the highest Board of Education as early as 1793, and of which a few were in activity in some places in Kurmark, were supported by the king, who, in 1799, had several towns, and even villages, where industrial schools should be established, singled out and reported to him.

5. As the deliberations of the authorities were characterized by slowness and overscrupulousness, so was all school teaching carried on after a traditional practice which gets rooted sooner in teaching than in any other branch of activity, and opposes greater difficulty to its removal. New districts having been added to the country, and the problem growing more difficult, it was thought necessary to invent new methods, by which more might be effected than hitherto. Rochow had established in his schools a method more in agreement with the age; it was in great reputation, and more praised than acted upon. But, quantitatively, it has produced no great effect upon the mass of the people. The methods of Olivier in Dessau, even of Pestalozzi in Switzerland, were favorably spoken of, because they gave promise of attaining the general objects of school teaching in an easier manner, and produced much controversy both in periodicals and official documents. The former was examined in the official report: "Treatise on the new method of spelling and reading of Prof. Olivier, 1803," the latter by Soyeaux. Director Snethlage, who had been removed from Hamm to the Joachimsthal Gymnasium, was their principal opponent since 1804. The method was expected to act magically; henceforth it was the number on which all hopes were staked; it was the constant *dramatis personæ* on the stage of school history; it was no longer a moment in the development of the art of teaching, but the object of the statesman, on which he founded his calculations on the importance and the effects of public instruction.

Frederic William III directed counselor Gedike, (April 22d, 1803.) who intended to go to Italy, to stop in Switzerland, to visit Pestalozzi's establishment, and carefully to study that system; but Gedike died on the 2d of May, 1803. Minister Von Voss, who was at the head of the administration of the Polish provinces, thought of taking advantage of Pestalozzi's method, when he established new schools and improved those already existing, in order to produce better results than hitherto. The cautious king considered it necessary to warn the minister not to force Pestalozzi's method upon the teachers of those districts. Voss replied that he had never intended to act in any other manner than in agreement with the king's intentions, and adds the following remark, which Pestalozzi most likely made in a letter to Voss concerning the practical working of his method among the Poles: "It is particularly applicable in districts of little civilization, as it is more easily understood by the rude nature of an uncivilized people, than by a degenerated and misdirected sham civilization. I long for the time when Jeziorowski will apply the means of public instruction to common sense, to labor and business, to innocence of heart and to cultivated wisdom of men." Pestalozzi's endeavors had found such an echo in Ernest Plamann, of Berlin, (vide his life by Dr. F. Bredon, Berlin, 1836, and "The Morning of my Life," by Harnich, Berlin, 1865,) that he actually introduced Pestalozzi's method in his school. He was the first in the metropolis who ventured to do so, and provoked the opposition of some, whilst others contented themselves with quiet observation. Fichte received at all events in Plamann's institute the deep impressions of the importance of Pestalozzi's method.

D. Period of Transition. Queen Louisa.

1. After the grave experiences of 1806 and 1807, there began in the Prussian history a revolution, marking the beginning of a new epoch, amidst efforts and combats of all kinds, and it extended to public education, dropping all former proposals for reform.

No State has ever employed so many means nor put such forces in motion, as Prussia did from this period to improve public and scientific education. The object in view was nothing less than ennobling life in all classes of the people; to raise all subjects of the king, without exception, above their rude condition; to provide them with the greatest amount of useful knowledge, to warm their hearts for virtue and patriotism, and thus to prepare them for the blessings of rational liberty. Queen Louisa was the animating principle of this idea, from which proceeded henceforth all efforts in the realm of scientific and public education. The excellent men who formed the circle around the royal couple since the battle of Jena, hoped to be able to create in this way a moral power which would compensate for the loss of material weight. "Though we have lost many square miles of land, though the country has been robbed of its external power and splendor, yet we shall and will gain in intrinsic power and splendor," said the king; "and therefore it is my earnest will that the greatest attention be paid to public instruc-

tion." Eilers overheard Stein saying: "We proceeded from the fundamental principle, to elevate the moral, religious, and patriotic spirit in the nation, to instil into it again courage, self-reliance, and readiness to sacrifice every thing for national honor and for independence from the foreigner." Stein wrote, October 24th, 1808, to the highest administrative board at Königsberg: "To attain this end, we must mainly rely on the education and instruction of the young. If by a method founded on the true nature of man, every faculty of the mind can be developed, every noble principle of life be animated and nourished, all one-sided education avoided, and those tendencies on which the power and dignity of men rest, hitherto neglected with the greatest indifference, carefully fostered; then we may hope to see grow up a generation physically and morally vigorous, and the beginning of a better time." In his correspondence with Von Gagern, he expresses himself later thus: "My wish to see Prussia growing larger was not the result of a blind attachment to that State, but of the conviction that the dismemberment weakened Germany, destroyed national honor and nationality itself, rendered an administration on the principles of national economy illusory, degraded the individual and robbed him of patriotism, the corner-stone of morality."

2. The administration of school and ecclesiastic affairs was at that time in Prussia, as in many other States, a branch of the judiciary department. Now, when the so-called Stein-Hardenberg organization of the Prussian government was instituted, the school and ecclesiastic affairs became a section of the Ministry of the Interior. This section was, till 1811, under the wise and accomplished statesman, William von Humboldt, and then till 1817 under the minister Von Schuckmann.

William von Humboldt, who must have greatly changed his former opinions of the practicability and usefulness of public education, about which he had expressed great doubts,* and who then almost agreed with Mirabeau, (*Sans qu'on s'en mêle, l'éducation sera bonne dans une société bien ordonnée,*) has not been able to do much for the new school organization, in consequence of the shortness of time of his administration; but those men who planned under him the whole educational system, and hence also that of public education, viz., counselors Nicolovius and Süvern, continued their activity under Schuckmann. Harnish says: "He who has had an opportunity to become personally acquainted with Schuckmann, can not but highly appreciate the merits of those men who wrought so much good under him, and will easily understand what difficulties they had to contend with;" he refers to the characteristics which Eiler gives of him in "Characteristic Traits of Frederic William III, Vol. I, p. 198. "Nicolovius and Süvern, however, were men who knew how to judge ecclesiastic affairs ecclesiastically, and the latter, though he had been only at a gymnasium, made himself intimately acquainted with all the branches of public education, making its elevation and reanimation the object of the labors of his life. And he has not labored in vain."

* Works, Vol. VII, p. 56.

A. General Historical Remarks.

1. It is these men who laid the foundation of the real power of Prussia, and whose labors made the steady development of a true system of public education possible, compared with which, all that had been done before must appear poor, of subordinate value, and of a merely preparatory character. The inhabitants of towns, not to speak of the peasants, had hitherto been scarcely willing to be educated, however earnestly the government labored in their behalf. A man of the rural population, still kept in bondage, could not become a teacher, even if he had been willing, unless his grace the feudal lord consented, who, as Rochow himself says, was "king of Prussia" on his estate. Abbot Steinmetz of Klosterbergen actually boasted in 1787 that Magdeburg were a good place in which to procure pupils for his normal school from among the immigrating foreign journeymen; the feudal lords, too, who were at his "pedagogium," conducted by him in Klosterbergen, frequently left servants who were inconvenient as candidates for schoolmasterships at the normal school, instead of taking them along with them to the University. We read in Kruenitz's "The Village Schools, Berlin, 1794:" "The schoolmaster is either a soldier, school-boy, servant, or he has been preceptor, famulus or domestic to a member of the consistory." "Those of the first named three stations of life, mostly show great looseness in morals, and are ignorant of the duties of their future position;" nor does he say any thing favorable of the others. The teachers, as a class, were mostly recruited in a peculiar manner, somewhat similar to the 'strand-right.' Frederic II was certainly not so very wrong, seeing the difficulty of filling the vacancies or increasing the number of teachers, when he calls his invalid corporals a source from which any supply could be drawn. A sufficient number of teachers, coming regularly and freely from the people, could not be relied on whilst servitude existed. So long as the mass of a people consists of bondmen, who expend their best energies in working for their lords, receiving the poorest pay, so long can they have no inducement earnestly to try to develop their intellectual powers or to educate their children. It is scarcely just to call it want of moral power, when they betray opposition to their children's attending school; they are sullen, they are indifferent, they are altogether morally crushed. Why learn any thing, many a father may have asked, when the children have no other prospect but villein socage? And this may perhaps make it comprehensible why Sack, the counselor of the consistory, ventured to say publicly: "It sounds very fine, when we speak of the family of a hard-working peasant, sitting round their comfortable hearth on long winter evenings, listening to the father or son, as he reads from a useful book; but this is certainly nothing but an ideal, which will do very well for a romance, but which can scarcely be realized in this matter-of-fact world, at least in the Mark, for some time to come." And the peasants of the Mark were not worse off than those of other sections.

2. Frederic William III deserves the highest praise for having lifted

from the rural population the weight of serfdom, which prevented all development of the people, and for having placed them in a condition to become free men. The nation awoke, after the reform of the State organization, to the consciousness of its power, and developed it; a sufficient number of well qualified individuals of the rural population showed henceforth a steadily increasing desire to become teachers or to acquire knowledge. The seed scattered during school time could now take root and thrive in town and village. The town population derived at the same time great advantages from the new "city constitution," which granted them the right of self-government, under the liberal control of the State. It may so happen, that even at the present time the aldermen of some poor little towns, far distant from active commercial intercourse, have not yet done all that could be desired, i. e. there may be such places in which the schools have not yet been properly established and cared for; yet the town-schools of Prussia have reached such development and have been so liberally endowed during the fifty years of the existence of the city constitution, that all preceding efforts appear trifling, and their future prosperity is fully assured. This is especially true of Berlin.*

Besides the liberal legislation which made it possible that schools could flourish, other expedients were employed by which the improvement and extension of public schools in Prussia were promoted. The assistance of new and progressive elements from abroad was introduced, as for example by Carl August Zeller (1809) of Würtemberg; and by many able men, who were sent into other countries to obtain there not only a better understanding of the great problems of human culture, but to be inspired with greater enthusiasm for their solution. In the letter which Baron von Altenstein, then at the head of the education section of the department of the Interior, afterwards Minister of Education and Worship, wrote, under date of September 11th, 1808, to Pestalozzi, he says: "the young men to be sent must draw information at the purest source, must study not some branches of your system of education and instruction, but become intimately penetrated with its animating spirit, must learn how all the branches work in their mutual relation and in their intimate connection; must learn, under the guidance of its venerable originator and his respected assistants, how to apply it; must, in the intercourse with you, not only thoroughly develop their intellects, but also warm their hearts for their duties as educators; must become animated with the same convictions of the sacredness of their duties and with the same ardent desire, which inspired you to devote your whole life to it."† Thus were gathered a large number of young men from Prussia round Pesta-

* For the very instructive history of the development of public instruction in that city, which takes precedence of all other cities in the liberal expenditure for the establishment and maintenance of public schools, see the *Administrative Reports* on schools of the city of Berlin, which have been drawn up and published by the magistrate of Berlin, annually, since 1842. Those from 1851 to 1860 are republished in the "*Berliner Blätter*" (1864,) No. 2 to 20. Consult also *Studies on the Mark, Vol. IX.*; Dietr. Ritterhausen: *Contributions to the history of the Berlin elementary schools*, Berlin, 1864, page 144.

† *Stolzenberg's Contributions to History*, p. 2.

lozzi; who faithfully garnered up the teachings of that Swiss educator, brought them into their country, cultivated and developed them, as the head of recently-established normal schools, or as members of the Board of Education, according to the peculiar condition and the wants of the country, and rendered the name of Pestalozzi better known and honored than it had ever been before. Among these were Hennig and Dreist of Rügenwalde in Pomerania, Kawerau of Elbing, Kratz of Winzig in Silesia, Renschmidt of Rosenberg in Silesia, Preuss and Patzig of East Prussia; the brothers Bernhard of Halle, Haenel of Breslau, Steger of Prussia, Marsh of Silesia, Ksionzek of East Prussia, Titze of Silesia, Runge, later in Potsdam and Bromberg, and Baltrusch of East Prussia.

It was quite natural that the Pestalozzian school, as it may be called for brevity's sake, (it originated with Pestalozzi, yet it was intellectually and popularly, though not politically, developed in Prussia, whilst it remained unchanged in other German States,) took hold of, or rather placed itself in connection with, every thing that could be rendered useful. Thus, (1,) all that had reference to the country, its geography and history, were taught with the German language, from a pedagogic and patriotic point of view; (2,) Vocal exercises, in the social meetings, from which the modern singing societies, even the singing festivals, derive their origin;* (3,) Instruction in drawing, principally promoted by the private drawing school of Peter Schmidt in Berlin; (4,) Instruction in music; (5,) Perfect development of the body, either by placing themselves in connection with already existing establishments for physical culture, (*Turnanstalten*), or establishing new ones.

The Prussian Pestalozzi school was essentially religious, and had even more of positive Christianity than the original school itself of Pestalozzi, yet it tolerated all difference of opinion; it was more religious and tolerant than its age. Though active in various directions, it had a sound foundation; though narrow-minded in some respects, it had a liberalizing principle; it inspired patriotism in the hearts of the young; it showed courage in its weakness; the friendly hand of government assisted it in its troubles, and therefore it has attained glory and produced glory. King Frederic William IV was well acquainted with Pestalozzi's ideas, and he wrote to the founders of the German Pestalozzian school: "The spirit which animated Pestalozzi in his life and actions was that of moral earnestness, of humility, and of self-sacrificing love of these Christian virtues, which he, inspired by something higher, exercised during all his life, although the true understanding of the source from which he derived his power, was only revealed to him in later years. For he himself confessed to me that he had found in Christianity alone the comfort which he had formerly sought in vain in a different direction."

8. The government of the State, in the hands of men like Süvern, Nicolovius, and other noble spirits, was little influenced by customs,

* The singing societies of men (*Maennergesang Vereine*.) owe their origin and development mainly to Fr. Wilh. Berner, music teacher at the Normal School in Breslau, 1813.

many of which experience had proved to be decrepid and worn out, but were animated by an ideal which appeared to promise the realization of their hopes. The Prussian government, with faith in the regenerating power of a true national education, determined to introduce it. And thus it was that Prussia, still smarting under Napoleon's scourge, took for some time the lead of all the German States, not by issuing more or less ineffective decrees, but by actual experiments in the details of national education. There was spirit and life in Prussia, there was much activity in doing and liberty in contriving, with little outward parade. Any foreigner, visiting Prussia, might observe that the vitalizing breath of government, like the spirit of God, was acting upon the whole people.

Even the less impulsive could not help being influenced and carried away by this career of progress, because the government showed a firm resolution to press right on toward the desired goal. The work was certainly begun at the root, by the most earnest endeavor to create a body of professional teachers for public schools; which class of men, considering either their education, or their number, or their origin, or by any law, did not exist. There were plenty of sacristans, school-keepers, and their assistants, but in truth no real teachers of the people. How could there have been any demand for such teachers before there was a people? There always were, in Prussia as well as elsewhere, individuals, noblemen, citizens, peasants, common people, but there was no Prussian people, no nation in the kingdom of Prussia. Frederic William III has created it, essentially by the abolition of serfdom, verbally by his subsequent appeal "To my people," which brought every individual into a close community of a common life, death, battle, and victory, with its king; and induced all to embark in an enterprise and to pass through trials, the most sacred which exist for a nation. The youths of that nation, no longer in the state of serfdom, but faithful to their king to the death, required teachers, if there was any real intention of educating them. This work could hardly be done either by the buckram old sacristans, or by the class of schoolmasters, recruited from among ancient tailors. It was the older Pestalozzians, so graphically characterized by Harnisch, who were the progenitors of the older and middle-aged teachers in the Eastern provinces, and among whom a great variety of shades of opinion may be observed. In Saxony, for instance, the education of the teachers—if it may be so called—received a certain coloring from the rationalism of the clergymen. New normal schools were established every year, mostly by the government, but also by private enterprise, particularly in Saxony, to satisfy the increasing demand for teachers among them. There were new normal schools in Karalene (1811,) Braunsberg (1810,) Marienburg (1814,) Jenkau, (1815,) Graudenz (1817,) Neuzelle (1817,) Coeslin (1816,) one in 1816 in connection with the orphan asylum in Bunzlau (founded 1744.) Older establishments were reorganized, as the Evangelic normal school in Breslau in 1812 (founded 1753;) the Catholic normal school in Breslau in 1813 (founded 1765;

the old Berlin seminary for sacristans was transferred to Potsdam in 1817. The work of educating teachers was carried on in many of the most favored of these establishments, perhaps with a one-sided zeal, but always with an earnestness and with a success which reflects honor on their founders and directors. Nor can their merits be disputed of having given the main impulse to public education, of having been its principal promoters, of having laid the foundation to the structure of the national system of schools, whose magnificence is now so evident, and which had never before existed, or even been thought possible in any country. In these institutions, mental powers were awakened, young men educated, grown men inspired with enthusiasm for the welfare of the nation, methods devised, materials found out and rendered useful, objects of teaching rendered accessible to public schools, expedients for a better school administration pointed out, institutions proposed—all of which undoubtedly bear witness to an activity never thought of before. Schools multiplied, books for teachers and pupils were written, pedagogic periodicals published;* all of which favored the growth of a literature for teachers, who, as a class, became more and more prominent, educated, and respected, whilst they were formerly scarcely known and never mentioned. Labor, for those who were active in the normal schools at that time, was a real enjoyment; the school was considered the *nervus* of the organism of the State, and the instrument by which life was to be reformed, ennobled, and elevated. "The teachers could not but work with their whole heart for the advancement and glory of the country. They would eat and drink, of course; the Searcher of hearts knows that they in their weakness tried to advance their professional and individual honor, and that they frequently were feeble laborers in His empire; but they possessed a consciousness which others did not possess; they felt that they were not only instructors, not only schoolmasters, but also educators of the nation without being demagogues, friends of the people without being their flatterers, and they had great influence over their minds." "The Prussian Pestalozzi school was intrinsically religious; it spread all over the country from 1812 to 1820, having been, though in the beginning, with a certain caution, very properly recommended to its young advocates by the authorities, because many organs of State and school, lost in their old-fashioned practice, considered them suspicious innovators." Harnish believes he is justified in saying "that in 1820 to 1825 the spirit of modern school-organization had become the ruling spirit of education in the whole Prussian empire." This extension was greatly assisted by certain courses of lectures, (i. e. those delivered by Bernhard, Tuerk, and others,) as well as by teachers' associations, the best known and most influential of which was that in Berlin, (now called the Elder Teachers' Association,) and another in

* Among them may be mentioned "The School Adviser on the Oder," 1814 to 1819, a periodical which represents the vigorous spirit of that time, edited by the director of the Catholic normal school, Dr. D. Krueger, and the director of the Evangelic normal school, Dr. W. Harnish, in a spirit of harmonious teacher fellowship never before evinced.

Breslau. The principal centres, from which this spirit radiated, were the normal schools; wherefore the most prominent counselors of the Board of Education were more or less in connection with them. This is especially true of Tuerk, Bernhard, Schröer, Gass, Sckeyde, and Neumann. All these men, laboring in the same spirit, were in intimate coöperation, being either personally acquainted with each other from the start, or brought together by personal visits or correspondence.

Official Reaction against Pestalozzianism.

4. During the great events of 1813 to 1815, and as long as their glowing fire continued to inspire statesmen and leaders of the people, i. e. till 1819, it was difficult to decide whether the schools derived their importance from the life which surged around them, or whether their importance was due to their intrinsic power, very carefully fostered by the State authorities. Up to that time the friends of the national schools in Prussia had been animated by an exclusively educational zeal. But soon after 1817, in which year the king had created a separate ministry for ecclesiastic and medical affairs, and for instruction, and given it to Baron von Altenstein, other influence obtained ascendancy over the government both of Prussia and other States. The school had become an organ of the body politic, both of the State and in the affection of the people, which could not be undervalued; the school, which, in the opinion of some over-cautious men, had taken an indiscreet, progressive course, was checked, though at first mildly, in its apparently too ardent zeal. The encouragements of the authorities were no longer cheering, natural, frank, or frequent; the authorities, who had formerly favored and actually fostered the Pestalozzian spirit and method among teachers, especially in Silesia and other Eastern provinces, allowed it to be felt that a degree of displeasure had been produced by the openly expressed desire to infuse more of that spirit into public education; and they even took occasion to express to Pestalozzians their dissatisfaction of the strict observance of the methods of their school, without being able to propose any remedy or substitute. They considered it necessary to advise them not to act too rashly, not to attempt to teach, to try or to oppose too much at the time being. They then began to speak of attempting too much, and recommended and praised moderation. The time arrived when they dared to speak of "the limited intellect of a subject, as though a subject was not a citizen and a man." Who would like to describe that period of reaction, after having lived through it? For the young, who did not, it has been delineated with sufficient power in Menzel's general history, (vol. xii, p. 80, sq.) But the normal schools had diffused already too much fresh blood and spirit into the teachers of the so-called "old provinces," and the previous magnanimous administration had allowed it to affect the schools too far, that the fire which they themselves had kindled, could be easily quenched.

Silesia had been placed in advance of the other provinces by the influ-

ence of young Harnisch,* in Breslau and later in Bunzlau, under the confiding and inspiring administration of president Merkel, and of Gass, the counselor of the consistory. A clergyman of the Mark represents in "School-counselor," (*Schulrath* on the Oder, page 120,) the Sillesian schools which he had seen, to be superior to those of the Mark; they were certainly superior to those of Saxony, which had been under the Westphalian regime. Why should Harnisch have been transferred from Silesia to Saxony, unless for the purpose of purifying these institutions of their spirit of trivial rationalism, (established by Dinter and Zerrenner, who had been considered the true guardians of education,) and to instil into the minds of the young generation of teachers, sounder Prussian ideas and feelings.

Superintendent Händel labored in Neisse in harmony with Harnisch, though with more moderation, calling to his assistance Christian Gottlieb Scholz, (later so well known as a practical schoolman by his many writings, and by his zeal,) and published with him together the "*Schulbote*," which was widely circulated and read in the province.

Tuerk had initiated rather than effected a radical reform in Potsdam, when Strieg, now honorably pensioned, began his beneficent activity as director of the normal school, later as counselor of the Board of Education, and continued to work with zeal and success for many years by his sound judgment and moderation.

There was in Berlin, even in 1825, when Beckedorf began to publish his periodical, no remarkable pedagogic zeal.

B. HISTORICAL REMARKS ON THE SEVERAL NEWLY-ACQUIRED PROVINCES.

1. *Saxony.*

a. The province of Saxony, containing four hundred and sixty square miles, with two millions of inhabitants, mostly Evangelic, is partly composed of portions of the oldest hereditary possessions, partly of comparatively recent acquisitions, (duchy of Magdeburg, principalities of Halberstadt and Erfurt, the former cities of the empire, Mühlhausen, Nordhausen, and portions of the Eichsfeld,) and lastly of a portion of the kingdom of Saxony. That is, it was formed of portions of Germany in which the Reformation had its birthplace, and where the German organization of schools had been first accepted by the people. When the districts before mentioned were annexed by Prussia, there was no necessity for the government to establish schools; it had only to foster and to improve them. Magdeburg with Klosterbergen, Halle with its Francké foundation, Halberstadt with its teachers, became centres for a quiet but not ineffective instructional activity; so were Erfurt and Mühlhausen, in their own way and according to their power, though the district of the Altmark left much to be desired for a long time. The schools, particularly those in the country, bore, in form and nature, more or less the character of those of the other German States of the same religious con-

* See Harnisch "The Morning of My Life."

fession and family, viz., the teachers were mostly sacristans who taught according to old routine, and were destitute of any progressive spirit; the arrangements were poor and traditional; their effect on general education very moderate. The intrinsic value of the schools in the province of Saxony was measured by the capacity of individual teachers; the traditional institutions offered no other obstacle to their development than the teachers themselves. Where there happened to be teachers of talent, zeal, and self-acquired education—and where among the clever men in Saxony, where among Evangelic men had such teacher ever been absolutely wanting?—there were some schools which might be held out as patterns to others. Franké's pedagogic efforts in Halle, and the activity of the philanthropists in Saxony and Thuringia had always kept alive a feeble and intermittent love of instruction and education among clergymen and teachers.*

b. When the districts beyond the Elbe were torn from the Prussian monarchy in 1807, to form the so-called Westphalian kingdom, their administration came under the influence of Jerome's government, established in Cassel; and their schools were not in a very favorable condition. How could a work be done in those times of war, which can flourish only in peace; how, in those days of intense and universal selfishness, could the field of education, which requires self-denial and devotion, be tilled? There were at that time clergymen and teachers enough, whose labors had no other object than to earn the applause and the favor of the ministers who ruled in Cassel. Zerrenner in Magdeburg, clergyman, teacher, director of the normal school, &c., did not shrink from the task of composing and publishing a "Westphalian Children's Friend," and to dedicate it to a prominent man of the Westphalian bureaucracy, in order to show Westphalian patriotism. He gained by the book honor and position, and thus a great influence over teachers and schools; it brought Magdeburg into the repute of being foremost in the organization of city schools, and in an effective system of instruction. With the humanitarianism, the dignity, the circumspection and prudence peculiar to him, he organized the schools of the district according to his own views, and succeeded by his utilitarianism and sentimentality in satisfying the population of those districts. Some of his disciples have even been able to make their fortune by the liberal use of Zerrenner's writings and precepts.

c. The centre of the pedagogic activity in the formerly Prussian Saxony, Halle, having allowed Franké's spirit to escape from among them, had ceased to be the representative of the Saxon views of an improved system of instruction and education. Niemeyer's eclecticism could not obtain or restore this influence either by his pedagogic lectures or by his three volumes of "*Principles of education and instruction.*" The centre of gravity had shifted to Dresden, at the time when Dinter had become a prominent ecclesiastic and pedagogic individual. If Zerrenner may be called the *magnus Apollo*, then Dinter deserves to be

* Bernard's "*German Educational Reformers.*"

Ἐρμῆς ὁ κοινός of the rational and sentimental art of teaching at that time.* Their names had a great influence with the teachers, their clever method in teaching gained them friends, their comprehensive writings were considered to be very practical and very useful by the teachers of the Elbe districts of Prussia and Saxony, and even in other places where Pestalozzi's method has never been able to gain a firm footing. Dinter made Pestalozzi the hero of a satirical poem, which he published in Erfurt, and with which the publishers made me a present, some years later; subsequently he declared Pestalozzi, in the Napoleonic style of those years, to be king of the lower classes, whilst he exalted Socrates to the leadership of the higher, at the same time reserving for himself a position above both. Zerrenner, the eclectic and diluted mixture of Von Rochow, Basedow, and Niemeyer, considered Pestalozzi to be a man who inconvenienced himself and his disciples a great deal too much by the amount of activity which he desired and made necessary; the same results could, in his opinion, be obtained much easier by the gentle application of enlightening information. "To enlighten the brains," to produce correct conceptions by good definitions, that was his preference, his passion, his talent. His influence and his writings overflowed land and people, under the pretext that they aimed at a popular rationalism, and that they taught an enlightened religion, comprehensively expressed, in place of an obsolete theology. *Qualis rex, talis grex*, at least in that school of teachers which had its origin in that man. Distinguished by a gentlemanly appearance, by pliant smoothness and caution of expression, it seems that this school was wanting in power, animation, concentration, and particularly in a truly Christian spirit. To teach generally useful knowledge in the abstract, a historical comprehension is necessary, which it did not possess. Its object was to grow more clever and smarter than those people who lived before us in utter darkness, from which to have escaped people should be thankful. This is not the proper place to show the connection of the "friends of light" with the head-quarters of Zerrenner, but so much is certain, that both moved on the same circumference, although it can not be said that the doctrines of the friends of light originated with Zerrenner.

d. Whilst the old Saxon districts of Prussia were influenced by Zerrenner, the new Saxon districts were under the influence of Dinter, because many teachers had been his pupils, and most of them were readers and admirers of his writings. The Prussian government transferred Harnisch as soon as possible, (1822,) from Breslau to Weissenfels, in the southeastern portion of the province of Saxony, as director of the normal school. The writer of these lines was sent (1840) to Erfurt, in the southwestern portion of the province, where Möller had labored so long as teacher at the normal school, and as counselor of the consistory, with as much circumspection as success. This was done to protect the increasing number of young teachers in Thuringia against the widely spread rationalism which had already taken possession of the souls or

* See Barnard's "*Pestalozzi and Pestalozzianism*."

was being nourished from Weimar and Gotha, (by Roehr and Bretschneider.) Whilst in the South of the province the Prussian teachers opened their hearts to a Christian life in and with the people, and spread their influence with more or less evident success, as particularly in Mühlhausen by the beneficent coöperation of the brave teachers Otto and Fehre: the North of the province had to wait patiently for a long time, till the Magdeburg normal school could be removed to Barby, till the extinction or dissolution of private normal schools, which had existed so long in Eilenburg and Grosstreiben under Zerrenner's patronage, could be effected, till the normal school at Eisleben could be reorganized, and a new normal school could be established in Elsterwerda. It is more than probable that the schools, particularly in the Northern and central portions of the province, had their silent foster-fathers and tenacious representatives in opposition to those, who had been influenced by the new normal school in Weissenfels since 1822, and in Erfurt, both previous to 1829 and subsequently in 1840.

e. Harnish did not escape the contests which Beckendorf had expected to be in store for him, when he went to Saxony. Though he alludes to them in his "*Description of the Weissenfels normal school, Berlin, 1838,*" it is to be regretted that he has not been able to continue his biography, because the plain manner in which he wrote would have represented his position in all its importance during these conflicts. Short allusions can be found at the conclusion of Harnish's work, "*The morning of my life,*" p. 449. When Erfurt had become a Prussian town again, a normal school was soon established there, originally by the private exertions of several brave men who had the improvement of schools at heart, such as counselor K. Hahn, dean Möller, Cantor Fischer, K. Reinthaler, candidate for ordination, &c.; it became (1829) a State institution by the influence of Zerrenner, who succeeded in procuring for parson Sickel, his disciple, the place of the former director, Möller.* He was succeeded by Philo, in October, 1840, who labored to revive in that establishment a spirit more in harmony with the Gospel than that which had hitherto governed it.

Stralsund and Pomerania.

2. The governmental district of Stralsund, which includes the duchy of Vor Pommern or Swedish Pomerania, (to distinguish it from the duchy of Vor Pommern belonging to the district of Stettin,) and the principality of Rügen, hence the country North of the Peene river, contains fourteen towns, and was annexed in 1815.† There reigned, till 1637, the

* Diesterweg's *Pedagogic Germany*, Vol. I., p. 286.

† The contributor of these communications has labored these eight years as a teacher in different places in Vor Pommern; he therefore writes partly from his own observation and personal experience. Moreover there have been consulted: Mohnike and Zober, *Stralsund Chronick.*, 2 vols. Stralsund, 1833; John Jacob Grumbke, *New and minute geographical, statistical, and historical Notes on the island of Rügen*, 2 vols., 1819; Biedlerstedt's *Collection of all ecclesiastic, &c. resolutions in the duchy of Vor Pommern and Rügen*, 2 vols., Stralsund, 1817; Ohm's *Chronick. of the town of Barth*; Count Krasnow, *Contributions to the history of New Vor Pommern and Rügen*, fifty years ago; and at the present time, Greifswalde, 1865, *Some official documents and manuscripts.*

dukes of Pommern-Wolgast, and after the death of the last descendant of this line (Bogislav XIV.,) under which the duchies of Wolgast and Stettin had been united, they fell, together with the country South of the Seeue river, (Old Vor Pommern,) the mouths of the Oder, and Stettin, to the Swedish crown, to which they belonged for two centuries. That is a long period, and the inhabitants of Vor Pommern and Rügen have been quite comfortable under the mild government of the kings of Sweden; in their almost patriarchal condition, they had but rarely to complain of claims on their willingness to sacrifice something to the general welfare of the State. But as for intellectual culture, and particularly as for the education of the lower classes, almost nothing was done; at least the attempts of government to improve the schools produced no effect worth mentioning.

The first schools for the people appear to have been established soon after the Reformation.* They were mostly kept by sacristans in villages that had churches. At the same time, a higher class of schools, called Rector-schools, were established in towns, to supply the want of the citizens.

a. Town-schools.—Johannes Æpinus published in Stralsund as early as 1525,† particular regulations for Church and School, according to which two *free-schools* for the young of both sexes were to be established. The principal object in view was instruction in God's Word. A superintendent was to be at their head, a Latin teacher and two other schoolmasters were to be employed. The whole regulation consists of five sections, of which the second, third and fifth run thus: "God having commanded all parents that the children should receive instruction in His laws, two schools are needed, one for boys and one for girls." "Because we profess to be Christians, we should be careful that such schools should be established according to Christian law, that the youths may not only receive information in the word of God, but that they should be fortified to act according to it." The main work the schools are expected to do is, to instruct the children in doing right, and to teach them how to live in compliance to God's word."

A second organization of Church and School for Stralsund was published in 1535 by Dr. John Bugenhagen. It does not essentially differ from the one issued ten years before. Thus it says: "We also direct that two schools shall be established, for the poor and for the rich living here who reside within the limits of the town; in the one shall Latin and German be taught, in the other shall girls be educated." The boys'

* At the meeting in Treptow, (December 13th, 1534,) of the dukes Philip I and Barnim IX, it was resolved, "that the preaching of the Gospel should be allowed without hindrance, that churches and schools should be established, and that the estates of the Roman Catholic Church should be confiscated."

† About the author of this regulation for Church and School, Mohnike says: "There lived at that time in Stralsund, as director of the school at St. John's Churchyard, a man called John Æpinus, whose real name was Hoeck or Hoch; he played later, in 1528 and 1529, an important part in the history of the church of Hamburg. This man, though not mentioned as a clergyman in Stralsund, must have enjoyed great authority in consequence of his learning and practical ability, for it was he, and not Ketselhodt, who was applied to, to draft this regulation."

school was to have one rector and five assistants. The school consisted, as magister Philippus Melancthon has directed in his book for the visitations in Saxony, of three classes, yet the rector was authorized to form a fourth class. This institution has not been an elementary school, nor a high-school either, but a rector-school, what we would now call a common town-school. The educational establishments in the other towns were of a similar character, but little is known about them, before the province was annexed by Prussia.

The town and provincial school * at Bergen was established after the Reformation, and had only one class for boys. The girls received instruction in the school of the sacristan, which may have been in existence before the Reformation. John Empel was the first rector in 1562. The reports are not very cheering; those of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries contain almost nothing but complaints about the individual and public distress, the wretched condition of the schools, and the unproductive exertions of the city authorities to relieve them. The country suffered much during the Thirty Years' War. The school derived no assistance from the Swedish government, when it had taken possession of Pomerania. The inhabitants of Bergen took the oath of allegiance to Adolphus Frederic in 1754, and thought this a good opportunity to give some hints at the necessity that the very dilapidated school-house should be repaired. They therefore made a transparency with this motto: "If the hand of the Almighty had not protected me, I should long since have been a heap of rubbish." And another, showing the temple of Minerva, had this motto: "As Adolphus Frederic will rebuild the temple, this school-house will also be repaired by him." Yet, *O fallacem hominum spem et inanes nostras contentiones!* There were no repairs made.

The school in Barth is mentioned in a document as early as 1325, in which Wratislaf, duke of Pomerania and prince of the Rügians, says: "I also authorize my privy council to appoint a schoolmaster and a sacristan whenever there is a vacancy."

The oldest instruction for a school organization in Barth is by duke Bogislaf XIII, in the year 1584; it contains much detail, and is closely connected with the organization of the church. But in how sad a condition the schools were, even after a lapse of two centuries, may be seen from the following lawsuit in 1748. Rector Zunghen requested that the school fees should be increased, because the price of wood was so very high; the council did not approve of this request. The rector therefore had no longer any fire made in the school-room, and had even the benches removed. The council made complaints to the consistory, but received no answer. The council renewed the complaint, stating that there had not been any school for three weeks; then the rector was ordered (1748) to have the school-room properly heated, on the penalty of a fine of thirty thalers. But Junghen did not obey; on the contrary, he protested

* The denomination *provincial school* is a mere title, because the inhabitants of the province, i. e. of the country about Bergen, contributed nothing to the salary of teachers, &c., nor did they generally send their children to that school.

against the sentence and continued the lawsuit. All the while there was no instruction given to the children, because there was but one school-room. The rector gives a description of this room, and tries to prove by figures that the quantity of wood furnished to him was altogether insufficient. The room was twenty-eight feet long, twenty feet wide, and ten feet high; the walls were of brick and loam, yet the seams, not being filled up with mortar, were mostly quite open. The clergyman of Bodstedt gave it officially as his opinion, that the room required ten cords of the best beach and oak wood, to be properly heated from 7 A. M. to 4 P. M. during the winter season. The school had two classes in 1774, and in 1789 most likely three, for there is mentioned a subrector, besides a rector, a writing-master, a teacher of arithmetic, and a sacristan.

There were similar schools in Grimmen, Loitz, Tribsees, Lassan, and Darngarten, some under a rector, others under a deacon; there was in Wolgast, Barth and Bergen, (with some interruptions) a subrector, besides the rector. The undersigned has not obtained any special reports on Wolgast, but, to judge from some old statistics, schools must have been in a flourishing condition, most likely because the dukes resided there for a long time. In Franzburg, Richlenberg, and Garz, were schools kept by the sacristans. So had the market-town Gingst a so-called German school, in which the deacon (just licensed to preach) had to give two lessons every day. The town of Sagard on Yasmund (a peninsula of Rügen,) established a school in 1792, liberally assisted by the Swedish Count Brahe; it had but one teacher, who was at the same time parish clerk and organist.

A more detailed description of the development of the town-schools is not an object of this article, but it may be mentioned that in 1815, the two towns which had gymnasiums, viz., Stralsund and Greifswalde, supported, besides the sacristans' schools, each a citizens' (*industrial*) school and a school for orphans.

These public schools were altogether insufficient, and therefore there were in towns a large number of private schools, kept by women. Rector Junghen ascribes the decay of the public school in Barth to the large number of private schools (*Winkelachulen*;) he enumerates more than a dozen, evidently kept by persons who had not the least qualification for teaching, (the school of the musician and dancing-master *M*, of the drunken vagabond tradesman *L*, of the swineherd *H*, &c.) There must have been perfect liberty of teaching at that time! More than twelve private schools in a town which had about three thousand inhabitants!

Large schools had not more than three teachers, viz., the rector, the parish-clerk, and a teacher of writing and arithmetic. Rector and clerk had always studied theology, and became generally ministers after some years' service at a school. When normal schools had been established (in the last century,) only thoroughly educated pupils were appointed as clerks. Some of them, pupils of the normal school at Halberstadt, were honorably mentioned in the chronicles. The other teachers of town-

schools have most likely been persons who had prepared themselves in higher studies, but who had, after that, neither the means nor the intellectual habits to continue their studies. They, as well as the sacristans and the principals of girls' schools, had to pass a kind of examination by the superintendent; yet this examination appears to have often consisted of nothing but a conversation. A late teacher of the Swedish period told me that he had applied for the position as a sacristan; after a long conversation with the superintendent, he requested that the examination should begin. "Oh, my dear," answered the ecclesiastic gentleman, "the examination is over, and you shall be our sacristan."

The instruction in town-schools was confined originally to reading, writing, arithmetic, religion, singing, (as much as needed for divine service,) and Latin, but it was extended by degrees to several other branches. Thus the school organization was completely altered in the towns of Greifswalde, Wolgast, Barth, Grimmen, Tribsees, Lassan, and Bergen, in 1789-90; so also in Loitz, (1785,) and in Gützkow (1792.)

A superintendent says, in a manuscript of the beginning of this century, about a certain town-school: "Though the organization of the schools was very deficient; though the parents frequently acted very arbitrarily in regard to their children's attending school at all, or certain classes, and though the teachers were frequently not what they should be, yet the schools accomplished something, and occasionally even a good deal. Latin was taught in the rector's class, though mostly at the expense of German and other branches of instruction. Music and drawing were much neglected; the former was practiced so far only as was necessary for church service and funerals."

Frisia non cantat, says Tacitus, if I am not mistaken. This might be applied to Pomerania and Rügen during the period of the Swedish dominion. There was no singing in private schools for girls, (till recently there were very few public schools;) but mythology is said to have been taught with great zeal by the school-mistresses to the daughters of the gentry.

Dr. Biederstedt gives a description of the German school in Gingst, very honorably mentioned at the beginning of this century: "The deacon of this public school teaches in the morning, from 8 to 10 o'clock, religion, orthography, mental arithmetic, and practices other exercises of the intellect, as charades, geography, natural history and philosophy, as much as tradesmen and peasants want, reading of Campe's and Salzmann's books of travels for children, &c. From 10 to 12 o'clock, the parish-clerk teaches the smaller children the alphabet, spelling, reading, exercises in the elements of mental arithmetic, tells them instructive stories, &c. All the children come together in the afternoon, when the older boys are instructed in calligraphy, and arithmetic at the black-board; the younger boys in spelling, reading of the catechism, of the Children's Friend, or of a hymn. There are also some singing lessons, which have produced the result that the divine service has become more impressive in Gingst.

The salary of the teachers of town-schools was generally very poor, yet there were a few glorious exceptions. In Bugenhagen's school regulations for Stralsund it is said: "The schoolmaster or rector shall receive one hundred and twenty florins, the subrector one hundred, the clerk ninety, the first pedagogus thirty, the second pedagogus twenty, the third pedagogus fifteen florins. Item, the schoolmaster and assistants shall divide the tuition money (*presium*) which they receive from the scholars, among themselves, so that the one gets as much as the other."

The teachers at the school in Bergen had formerly a very scanty income. The rector and subrector eighty thalers a year at the most, the clerk fifty thalers. The town also granted to the rector and clerk, when not married, the *mensam cursoriam*, i. e. the privilege of going to the citizens by turns to dine with them "out of the same pot," which expression must in many cases be taken literally. In the matricule of 1616 it is said: "The citizens will grant them the *mensam cursoriam* as long as they are unmarried, wherefore mayor and council will always make this provision." It was not earlier than the end of the last century that this custom was discontinued, when the rector received an indemnification of twenty-four, and the clerk of fifty thalers for his itinerating meal.

The other items of income of the teachers were not only very small, (each pupil had to pay one shilling a week, and during the winter a trifle for wood,) but also uncertain, because the parents were not obliged to send their children to school, and frequently sent them only during the winter session, keeping them at home during summer to assist them in their labors. The greater portion of the children grew up without any instruction. They derived a small and accidental income from deaths among the gentry and wealthy citizens of the parish, viz., the so-called burial-money; in some towns they had free lodgings or an indemnification instead.

The superintendence of town-schools was vested in a committee, (*scholarchat*), presided over by the provost (superintendent) or minister of the parish.

And what is the condition of the schools now, in 1865, when the country has enjoyed the blessings of the Prussian administration for fifty years? We confidently answer: Even the most fastidious must acknowledge that much, very much has been done; that the government has pushed on from reform to reform in spite of all obstacles, that is, has not been remiss in administering severe admonitions and in taking the initiative, without passing particular laws for the organization of schools, as it has done for the rural districts. It is scarcely ten years ago, when a member of the Board of Education closed, after a careful inspection, a number of good-for-nothing private schools, which gave employment to many teachers. The city authorities themselves have, as a rule, acknowledged the great importance of a general public education, and have spent much labor, care and money to attain this object, in spite of the inhabitants, who, accustomed to the easy-going Swedish rule, obstinately opposed all radical improvements.

Large school-houses, some of them even splendid buildings, were erected, such as in Barth, (two magnificent buildings,) in Wolgast, (the beautiful William's school, from the legacy of a merchant,) in Bergen, Grimmen, Garz, Lassan, Greifswalde, and Stralsund. School-houses are building now in Sagard and Darngarten. An elementary school and a middle school for girls were established in Stralsund two years ago. The number of male and female teachers has been doubled, even tripled in many places. Wolgast, for instance, has two rectors, one for the boys' school and one for the girls' school, and besides three educated teachers. Barth employs three teachers of the same class. There is a rector especially appointed for the public schools in Stralsund. Tribsees and Grimmen have a rector and two scientifically educated teachers each. The salaries of the teachers have also been increased in many towns; yet the income of the elementary teachers is not every where satisfactory. The higher teachers have salaries from four hundred to nine hundred thalers. The rector in Stralsund receives nine hundred thalers, in Bergen seven hundred and seventy, in Wolgast not much less, the second teacher six hundred; the rector in Barth receives seven hundred, the second teacher six hundred, the third five hundred thalers; the sub-rector in Bergen receives four hundred and twenty, and in Grimmen and Tribsees, four hundred thalers. The teachers of elementary schools have a salary of one hundred and fifty to five hundred thalers, in Greifswalde more; in the smaller towns, one hundred and fifty thalers more, when promoted to a higher place. Several towns do not pay less than two hundred thalers; Greifswalde two hundred and fifty, and Stralsund, setting an example to all other towns, pays a salary of three hundred thalers when the teacher enters into the service of the town, and increases it by additional twenty-five thalers after every five years' service, till the salary has reached five hundred thalers, as the maximum. There is, besides, some provision made for the widow and orphans of a teacher, if he should die during the term of his employment. When a teacher is at the same time the parish-clerk, sacristan, or organist, his condition is very comfortable.

The teachers of town-schools are educated in normal schools, and Stralsund particularly has the choice among the most distinguished passed pupils of the normal schools, in consequence of the acceptable conditions this town offers.

I have not been able to ascertain the number of public town-schools in 1815. The oldest provincial calendar I could obtain, was of 1821, and that one is not very exact. According to it there were at that time in the towns of the district, twenty-six public schools, with thirty-seven classes, fifty male teachers and five female teachers; whilst there are now thirty-eight public elementary schools, with one hundred and seventy-nine classes, one hundred and sixty-two male teachers and 18 female teachers. There are, besides, fifty-three licensed private schools, with eighty-five classes. The town schools compare favorably with the best of any other province.

2. *Country (village) schools.*—My remarks on these schools will mainly be guided by "Contributions by Count Krassow."

There were, in 1815, no other public schools than those kept by sacristans in villages that had churches, and these villages frequently consisted of the mansion and the dwellings of the cottagers. Almost all parochial districts were and are too large, so that the children of all the villages belonging to it can not possibly go to the sacristan's school. There were, therefore, sometimes secondary schools in villages too far from the church; but they can not be called public schools, for their existence wholly depended on the lord of the manor, who regulated their endowment, and ordered the appointment and dismissal of the teachers; in which he was *requested* to be guided by the advice of the minister of the parish, but no confirmation of such appointment by government was needed.

The districts of schools were by no means permanently bounded, nor could the parents be compelled to send their children to school. The number of schools was insufficient, and the school-rooms were in a miserable condition. In the schools kept by a sacristan, it frequently happened that the school-room served at the same time as sitting and bedroom of the schoolmaster. The secondary-schools were frequently kept in badly constructed hovels, not always furnished with a chimney; all were small, low and altogether too restricted for the number of children; almost every thing was insufficient and poor.

The income of the teachers consisted partly of free lodging, garden, pasture for a cow, sometimes fuel; partly of a fixed salary, partly of the weekly school-fees, to be paid by the parents; it amounted to a few cents, but was paid for those children only who really came to school. Many teachers, however, had no fixed salary, but had to rely on the school-fees; their income rarely amounted to ten thalers, frequently not more than two or three thalers a year.

School-keeping was, therefore, generally a subordinate occupation; even most of the sacristans carried on a trade besides. The secondary-schools were in the hands of small tradesmen, mostly tailors; some were even in the hands of invalid day-laborers, herdsmen, or old women. The instruction was, of course, very poor indeed. As Grumbke says: "No sooner have the children learned how to read, and have mastered the first elements of writing, when they leave school." Arithmetic was taught in a few schools in villages. Even in the best of them, the instruction consisted in hearing the children recite the catechism and hymns, in reading the Bible, in spelling the catechism, and in reciting the alphabet. The school was mostly open in winter only, and even then but irregularly.

Let us now cast a glance at the changes produced by the Prussian government during the last fifty years.

Nobody, in any degree acquainted with the rural conditions of that province, will have expected very rapid progress, but the government

found at once the seat of the evil, which should be removed. It therefore invested the ministers of the parishes, by the decree of August 21st, 1818, with the power to inspect the village schools, and ordered, by the cabinet order of May 14th, 1825, the general obligation to attend school in New Vor Pommern and Rügen. The progress effected by these reforms was slow, yet there was progress in spite of all the obstacles thrown in its way by obstinate conservatism, by the selfishness of many rich landlords, and by the wretched condition of the day laborers. The principal complaints to be found in the official reports since 1820, were directed against absolute unfitness of the teachers, and against the irregular attendance at school; and the urgent request was repeatedly made to send "able teachers, educated in normal schools." Such remarks as the following may be found in the reports: "The teacher is a cowherd; he can read, but can not write correctly." "The teacher is an invalid soldier, who lost a leg in the battle at Schwenskund, has taught in different places in Rügen these thirty-four years, and, since Michaelmas, in T., where he has instructed the children of that place and of several adjacent places in reading and writing, and in the primitive ideas about God and His laws. The number of children amounted to twenty at most. He received from each child one shilling a week, and no other salary. The parish has allowed him a small assistance, in consequence of his poverty and general debility, which prevents him from earning the least by labor." The same superintendent says, at the close of 1826: "It is a fact, that there are in this rural district, four hundred children, of whom three hundred and seventy have no schools where to go to. Some poor persons, living in small rooms, have sometimes instructed a few children in reading and writing, but they have no room to accommodate the children, even if they were willing to take the trouble of instructing them." As a reason why the schools were so irregularly attended by the children, it is stated in 1827: "1, Want of good schools; 2, Many poor day laborers can not afford to pay one shilling a week for the school, and others are compelled by want of food to hire their children out to the landlords as swineherds, shepherds, cowherds, or geeseherds, when they have not *one* hour a day, during the summer, to visit the school." It is repeatedly stated: "In order to earn his daily bread, there is no time left to the teacher to study for his own improvement," (the minister had most likely been willing to teach the schoolmasters.) The children, and even among them only those who came regularly, learned nothing but to read, (at least to some degree,) the catechism and some hymns. A report says: "A few learn how to write, (they had to pay two shillings a week;) there have not been any (in 1825) who desired to learn arithmetic."

The government made new arrangements in 1827 for the improvement of the schools, instituting boards of instruction. The regulation of August 29th, 1831, placed the village schools on a firmer foundation. The secondary-schools were made public-schools, the boundaries of the

school districts determined, and the endowment of each fixed upon. The weekly fees were annulled, and annual payment ordered. The landed proprietors of the district were obliged to build the school-houses, and keep them in repair, to give a garden lot, pasture and winter fodder for one cow, and sufficient fuel, to the teacher. The teacher's salary to be made up by a fixed school-tax, to be paid by all who had a home-stead within the district, whether they had children liable to be sent to school or not. The school-houses have, since that time, been properly built,* (some even with a view to comfort,) and only such teachers employed, who have been educated in a normal school. Thus a great deal has been done for schools in general, and particularly for village schools, during the last fifty years.

Count Krassow gives a comparative review of the elementary-schools in villages of the governmental district of Stralsund in 1815 and 1864, and states that there were in 1815 no public schools, besides ninety-seven kept by sacristans, and one hundred and fifty-eight secondary-schools; but in 1864 there were, besides one hundred schools kept by sacristans, two hundred and thirty-seven public village-schools. The number of public schools has therefore increased by two hundred and forty, and of all the schools in the district by eighty-two. Whilst in 1815 there were seven thousand two hundred and seventy-nine of the fourteen thousand six hundred and eighty-four children liable to attend school, who received no instruction whatever; there were in 1864 but fifty-four among twenty-three thousand one hundred and fifty-two who did not go to school. But most likely not one child grew up without instruction, and the fifty-four have been marked down in the table by misunderstanding. Many a year, however, will pass, before the village schools of this district can rival those of other districts of the State, and before they will be equal to just expectations. There are several peculiar circumstances which will explain this.

The inhabitants have, firstly, still a fond recollection of the old Swedish privileges they had enjoyed, and an active commercial intercourse could not so quickly, as in other more favorably situated districts of the State, (for instance Erfurt, formerly belonging to the electorate of Mayence,) produce the consciousness of being part of a large and strictly regulated organism; it was just the deficiency in this respect, which rendered the process of assimilation so slow.†

Every one could formerly send his children to school or not, just as he pleased; nobody cared for it. The fathers or grandfathers of our generation had enjoyed this privilege, and felt comfortable in that practice. They have no correct understanding of the wants and of the progress of

* The communities of this governmental district have spent for the building and repairing of school-houses, 159,458 thalers during the last ten years, to which 2,309 thalers, contributed by government, should be added.

† Being neighbors of Mecklenburg, we had but a few years ago no railroad, few macadamized roads, and the country roads were in part of a character, that Riehl's humorous remark might be applicable to them, viz., that, in rainy weather and in winter, none but natives could travel on them.

our time, though they are by no means disinclined to drift along on its more pernicious currents. The mothers have had, in their younger years, either a very deficient instruction, or none at all; they may, perhaps, have learned to read print with some difficulty, but do not know the written characters. They are quite contented with that accomplishment. The Prussian obligation to attend school, that powerful lever of public and general civilization, is not yet recognized by all as a blessing. "My son," many a parent will say, "need not learn more than I know;" or "when my son has learned writing and arithmetic, he has learned enough, he needs no more." "What is the use of geography?" (nothing but the most rudimentary knowledge is taught,) a mother will say; "she is not to travel, she is not to become a traveling journeyman." These are remarks not unfrequently made. And the children are kept at home as often as there is an opportunity, when geese or pigs are killed, when potatoes are planted or harvested, when peat is stored up for the winter, on washing days, on market days, when the garden is to be laid out in spring, or crops to be taken into the barn in summer. The greatest irregularity of attendance occurred in the so-called free or poor schools; but there is also in other schools a great indifference not unfrequent. In the first class of the elementary school for girls in Barth, there were, for instance, in 1859 to 1862, sometimes one-fourth of the whole number absent, and mostly not more than one-half of the pupils present, and as the absentees were not always the same, the physiognomy of the class was a different one almost every day. Other examples might be adduced. The children, boys as well as girls, are often taken from school even before confirmation, and hired out; they sometimes leave school when but twelve years old, but always when at the age of fourteen. The proper authorities are not remiss in administering admonition and punishment, but these old evils can not be healed by a radical cure all at once, particularly not when the ministers of the parishes themselves do not show great interest in the school and in the education of the people, and when they or other employees of the higher classes of society cause, or favor, or ignore such negligence in attending school, governed by the fatal opinion that the common people's destiny is labor and nothing more.

A second cause of the slow development of the village schools must be found in the deficient education of the teachers. There is still a large number of them without proper preparation for their profession. There was in Greifswalde, since 1791, a normal school, yet its pupils confess that it was very deficient. It was therefore removed to Franzburg in 1853, and greatly enlarged. But it is even now not able to educate the number of teachers needed, and another extension is contemplated. In some portions of the district, most of the teachers employed are not educated in normal schools. These men have certainly a little more education than the teachers at the Swedish time, but, on the whole, they are very deficient in their own mother-tongue even, both in speech and in writing; the most absurd blunders against grammar are quite frequent. They have been tradesmen, sailors, soldiers, merchants, &c.;

changed their profession, often when already advanced in years, even when gray-haired fathers of families, and prepared for a position as teachers, sometimes without the assistance of a normal school, because there was none in the district; for the one which was kept by an ancient teacher and organist in Stralsund, to which these gentlemen resorted in their ripe age, could not be called a proper institution for that purpose. And no other opportunity for a proper training offered itself, though government appointed some teachers for this very purpose. A clergyman, in company with some teachers, is said to have, quite recently, established a school for such candidates in a small country town. Hitherto there existed, therefore, for candidates for normal schools, only the one quite defective establishment in Stralsund; the education of these young men as well as of the older ones, who presented themselves for examination without having ever been at a normal school, must have been very poor. Better arrangements must be made, before thoroughly educated teachers can be obtained. The writer of this article has frequently been asked by parents, and teachers too, where they should send their sons to be trained before entering the course of instruction at a normal school, but he could not find in the whole district a single establishment which he could have conscientiously recommended for that purpose. Such establishments are absolutely needed; I mean not such in which one teacher, already otherwise overworked, gives all the instruction, but a larger one, (like that excellent one in Erfurt, which existed until ten years ago,) at which several experienced teachers are employed, and which is superintended by an inspector appointed for that purpose only. It is certainly to be regretted that we hear in some districts, where a deeper and better understanding might be expected, the opinion expressed that teaching is an easy, an unimportant affair, a particular preparation for it scarcely necessary, a training in normal schools of very little practical value, technical experience of little consequence; that it is indifferent whether the teacher knows the difference between the dative and accusative case, provided he has the "saving faith." They think they serve God when they assist a field hand or a day laborer in changing his vocation, and make him a teacher of the growing generation, when he diligently attends the conventicles, bewails the depravity of the world, and fancies to find in himself a call to do something better and holier. What destruction has been wrought already by such proceedings! And yet there are people who grow never tired in increasing in this way the large number of worthless schoolmasters from professed Christians, but actual hypocrites.

The third and last cause of the little effect produced by the public elementary schools, especially in villages, is the wretched pecuniary condition of the teachers. Some sacristans are certainly well paid, (from three hundred to six hundred thalers,) but the greater number of teachers have a miserable income. Reliable information states the total income of some teachers to be fifty thalers a year. A certain teacher* peti-

* He had been educated in the "Rauhe-haus," and this excellent institution, so important for

tioned quite recently for a furlough, in order to study another year at the Berlin normal school for the perfection of his education as a teacher; to his great astonishment he received the answer that, on his return, he would hardly get the same position again, or another corresponding to it, as it was one of the very best, its total income amounting to one hundred and eighty-nine thalers a year, with dwelling, peat, and garden lot.

Yet let us read, about this point, the closing sentences of an article in the "Amisblatt" an official weekly paper of the Government in Stralsund, (1866, No. 35.) "The more we are pleased by the progress of our public schools, the less ought we to shut our eyes to the deficiencies which can not be denied. We shall point out one defect this time, viz., the pinched condition of many teachers, particularly in the country. When by the decree of August 29th, 1831, the organization of elementary schools was regulated, and many teachers were appointed for village schools, but scanty provision could be made for a large number of them. It was intended to lay not too heavy a burden on the communities, to avoid their opposition to these new regulations, and it was taught that the teachers might earn something by carrying on a trade. But, since then, circumstances have greatly changed. The cost of the necessities of life is now double of what it has been, so that the salary, scarcely sufficient for a family thirty years ago, is now perfectly insufficient to protect it against want and bitter distress. The claims on the school and the teacher are now by far greater than before; the preparation for the office of teacher has become more difficult and expensive; his official duties require more time and vigor, so that a teacher, even if he should be skilled in a trade, and if he should have an opportunity of practicing it, can not devote himself to it without neglecting his office and his intellectual improvement. The consequence is, that many teachers have a smaller income than an ordinary day laborer, whilst their intellectual education and social position entitles them to claim a better material condition. Is it to be wondered at, that many a teacher loses the cheerful love for his profession in the bitter combat against distress and want, that he falls a prey to discontent and bitter feelings? Is it to be wondered at, that young men of ability more and more rarely devote themselves to the profession of a teacher, and that they rather select any other occupation, which promises them a better paying activity, and more security against a life of want and distress? Hence the deficient number of teachers is more and more deeply felt; and this the more, as the teachers, whose sons very frequently devote themselves to the profession of their fathers, have not the means to procure for their sons the necessary education. Relief is absolutely necessary unless the development of our elementary schools shall be retarded, if not altogether stopped and turned backward." (*Dammau.*)

the home mission, could not offer him all he needed for his purpose. The labor in this establishment for neglected children, performed on the family principle, is very different from that of a teacher in a well conducted public school.

3. Province of the Rhine.

a. While the organization of public schools was going on in the (new and old) Eastern provinces of Prussia with increasing firmness, development, and activity, the government had to solve an important, delicate, difficult, and very complicated problem in the Western portion of the monarchy, consisting partly of new acquisitions, partly of old possessions, which had been under foreign administration for some time. The now-called Rhenish provinces have developed themselves under the Prussian sceptre to a vigor, opulence, civilization, and self-reliance, utterly unknown under the crosier of the archbishops or under Napoleon's rod; they are mostly new acquisitions of the State; some portions of Westphalia only had been parts of Prussia, before the French conquest, and had enjoyed Prussian administration.

I propose to speak first of the history of the public education in the Rhenish provinces, i. e. the governmental districts of Dusseldorf, Cologne, Coblenz, Treves, and Aix-la-Chapelle. Government would have had still greater difficulties to encounter, if it had been compelled to take into consideration the peculiarities of the educational system in all the different States (there were one hundred and seventy formerly independent States,) which now form the one flourishing province. The French conqueror had, however, not only on the left bank of the Rhine, but far into the very heart of Germany generally, cleared the road to improvement in the interest of his own administration, leveled with the ground antiquated peculiarities, broken down time-honored laws and institutions, and reduced to the same subjection, parts that had succeeded in keeping separate from each other for many centuries.

The schools had in these districts by no means been sufficiently organized, superintended, and in general attended to. Portions of them, like Tulich and Cleves, had been under Prussian government and administration, and had therefore had a regular system of education according to the religious denominations; the larger portion, however, was made up of new acquisitions, with a Catholic population and corresponding schools.

b. It is difficult to give a correct historical delineation of the former condition of schools and their development in these districts, and yet it appears necessary, in order to understand their present condition, to state generally that the Roman Catholic school organization, if any organization of a truly public character existed, was utterly insufficient, and its administration quite as inefficient. This statement is amply sustained by the autobiographical sketches of several of the brave old teachers of that period—by Schuermann of Remscheid, in the *Rheinische Blätter* (vi., p. 39;) by Vogel of Lengerfeld (viii., p. 364;) and by Fapbender, of Ronsdorf—these unite in representing the public schools as few in number, and poor in quality, with insufficient funds and incompetent teachers. Here and there were clergymen who breathed some life into the schools, such as the Catholic Hoogen in Dalken, and Overberg in Münster; and the

Evangelical Goes in Runderoth, Reche in Mulheim, and Ross in Budberg. In the absence of good public schools, private schools with most pretentious names sprung up, offering the greatest range of instruction to the sons and daughters of the wealthy. By degrees this state of things brought the best teachers of public schools together into associations, or conferences, the earliest of which was called by Schuermann at Remscheid in 1794, and which for the time became a substitute for a Normal School, as did several others.* The teachers themselves, aided by a few ministers of the Evangelical Church, led the way in the reform of public schools. The example of Overberg at Münster was also followed by the Catholic priests Bracht and Hirsch, who established a temporary normal school at Dusseldorf; and the school commission of the French government, in 1806, brought the teachers of Elberfeld and the neighborhood into a temporary normal class every Saturday.

c. In the year 1810 it was arranged that there should be every year a regular course of instruction for teachers, and that indigent candidates of great talents should receive a pecuniary assistance to enable them to attend. A decree of the prefect was published in the same year, which ordered that the age of the school children should be from the sixth to the twelfth year, fixed the amount of money to be paid for instruction, and regulated the collection of arrears. In 1811 it was ordered that the normal number of pupils of every elementary school should be eighty. The minister of the interior ordered, in 1812, that teachers of all denominations should pass an examination, and that they, as well as assistants, should give six weeks' notice to the mayor before leaving their post. The minister published, on the 21st of June of the same year, an instruction about the division of the arrondissements in school districts, ordered that children should attend school from their sixth to their fourteenth year; that every teacher should have three fourths of an acre of land for garden, nursery, and playground, and, if possible, meadow enough to keep one cow; that their normal salary should be two hundred and fifty francs, and that the fee for teaching should amount to fifty centimes in town-districts, and forty centimes in the country, without precluding the possibility of an increase. This instruction greatly ameliorated for the time the material condition of the teachers, has been a guide even in our days, but in some cases has helped to fix the standard when the expenses of living have increased. As the French ruled the country for years, the knowledge of their language became a necessity in such places, and thus teachers acquainted with French could employ their spare hours in giving lessons in that language. This caused the younger teachers to learn this foreign tongue. Such was even more the case in the smaller towns in Tulich, where the protracted French dominion made the knowledge of this language a necessity, so much so that it was intended to teach both the French *and* German in the primary schools.

* Diesterweg, in his *Pedagogic Germany*, and *Rheinische Blaetter*, gives the history and results of these early conferences, which were in the nature of our well known Teachers' Institutes.

But then occurred the revolution of 1812, and in consequence of it the French authority on the Rhine terminated in the latter part of 1813.

The *ad interim* administration of the reconquered country on the Rhine, established by the allies, under governor Prince von Salms, did not neglect the public schools. The prince ordered, on the 6th of May, 1814, that a school-commission should assemble in Dusseldorf, watch over the proper execution of the existing regulations, and propose such changes or new arrangements as they might consider necessary. This school-commission was established by his successor, Justus Gruner, in July, 1814, under the name of provisional school council, and the school-counselors, director Kortum, Bracht, and Kohlrausch, under the presidency of the counselor of state, George Jacobi, were charged with the task of drafting a statute for the organization of public instruction in the Grand Duchy of Berg, to arrange courses of instruction for teachers of Mark and Ravensberg, and to provide the school directors with proper instructions.*

d. The districts on the Rhine came under the actual rule of Prussia on the 15th of May, 1815. They were organized as the province of Niederrhein, (districts of Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblenz, and Treves,) the province of Tulich, Cleves, Berg, (districts of Dusseldorf and Cologne,) and the province of Westphalen, (districts of Münster, Minden, and Arensburg.) The two former are now called the Rhenish provinces.

The Prussian administration of public instruction, (which had endeavored to maintain its position, even to improve, in spite of the turbulent times,) begins in the Rhenish provinces at that period, and soon gave evidence of its beneficent influence. It could not be otherwise, because the good intention of the government assisted the good will of individuals. Ministers of the church were commissioned as school inspectors of every district containing twenty schools or more, according to circumstances. These ministers arranged regular conferences, which all teachers had to attend, both Catholic and Evangelic. These conferences, if they had not the same lively and effective activity which had distinguished the former "free" conferences exerted a great and favorable influence partly as a connecting link between the government and the teachers, but mainly because able teachers explain there the best methods of instruction for the benefit of the inexperienced.

e. A number of able teachers from Berg had been transferred to the district of Aix-la-Chapelle, mainly to its Evangelic communities, before 1815, and had attracted the attention of government by their success. Just at the time of the restoration in 1815, there were two distinguished counselors of the Board of Education, viz., Besserer, (Evangelic,) and Huesgen, (Roman Catholic;) who took great interest in education. They

* See Altgold, "*Collection of the legal decisions concerning the elementary schools in the governmental district of Dusseldorf*;" Neigebauer's "*The provisional administration on the Rhine, Cologne, 1821*," and in his essays in the "*Freimulhige Jahrbucher der Allgem. Deutschen Volksschule von Schwarz*, vol. ii., p. 255."

entered into connection with the most able clergymen, desiring their coöperation in establishing teachers' conferences for both confessions united. Old teachers and clergymen still speak with great warmth of the enthusiasm which inspired the teachers of that time. The conferences were continued for years in Aix-la-Chapelle, Eupen, Montjoie, Eschweiler, &c., by which the ablest teachers were employed and promoted. The distinguished teacher at the gymnasium in Aix-la-Chapelle, Rossel, who died unfortunately much too soon, published, in 1823, the "*Rhinish Westphalian Monthly*," which, however, was discontinued a few years after, on the death of the editor. Still more influential were the "*Annals of the Prussian Public Schools*," edited in Berlin by the privy-counselor, Dr. L. Beckedorf. Up to that time, no regular normal schools had been established; for the one which had been in operation in Wesel seems to have been closed during the French dominion. The Prussian government established three normal schools in the province; for Evangelic teachers in Mocurs and Neuweid in 1820,* and for the Catholic teachers in Bruhl, near Cologne, in 1822. The director in Neuweid was Brauns, a genuine Pestalozzian; in Mocurs was Diesterweg, Wilberg's disciple; in Bruhl, parson Schweiger. These men deserve great praise for having educated that class of teachers in the Rhenish provinces, whose mission it was to raise the public schools to the standard of the older provinces, and to direct their course into those paths which were partly pointed out and prescribed to them by the government, with the usual Prussian decision and perspicuity, and partly indicated by periodicals, such as Diesterweg's "*Rheinische Blaetter*," and Koetter's "*Evangelisches Schulblatt*" for the Rhine provinces and Westphalia in Gutersloh since 1857. When the system of education in the Rhenish provinces had become part of the organism of a great government; when it was no longer isolated, but had assimilated itself with the State, it received its animating spirit from head-quarters, and lost its provincial restriction and rigidity. Thus did the "*Rheinische Blaetter*" cease to be exclusively Rhenish, but discussed the ideas and objects of education and instruction in general, as applicable to the whole country.

4. Westphalia.

a. We now turn to the province of Westphalia, intimately connected with the Rhenish provinces, both by its extended western frontier, and by history, customs, popular spirit, and government. In the centre of the present province lies the "chapter" of Munster, formerly belonging to the electorate of Cologne; north of it the principality of Minden, with the county of Ravensberg, (acquired by elector Frederic William in 1648;) east is the former episcopate of Paderborn; south, parts of Berg, the former duchy of Westphalia, belonging to the electorate of Cologne, and several smaller districts. Those portions of the province which had belonged to the Prussian monarchy since 1648, enjoyed schools from that period in close connection with the Evangelic Church,

* See Beckedorf's *Annals*, vol. ii., p. 152, and Diesterweg's "*Rheinische Blaetter*," 1831, p. 156.

and organized by the State, by laws which bore the character of that early period. This traditional constitution not only secured the existence of the schools in the subsequent disturbed period, but allowed even improvements to be introduced. Some attention was paid to what was going on in the central provinces of Prussia and in other parts of the civilized world; not only was the method of teaching imitated, (the Berlin method,) but teachers were also induced to settle here, as Wilberg, who, at the request of Hecker, came to Bochum, near Hamm, in Westphalia, (1789,) and obtained great influence. He introduced Rekahn's method of instruction. The episcopacy of Paderborn belongs to the principal Catholic portions of the present province of Westphalia; so does the chapter of Munster and the duchy of Westphalia, formerly portion of the electorate of Cologne. A regular school organization had been for a long time in operation in Paderborn, as well as in the county of Wittgenstein. This organization had commenced in the ecclesiastic districts by regulations of the ecclesiastic sovereigns, shortly after the Thirty Years' War, but was extended to the Catholic districts in 1655. In the latter, particular attention was paid to female education; female teachers were required for the girls, and when this should be impossible, the boys and girls should be taught in separate rooms. Teachers, male and female, enjoyed special privileges. These and similar regulations remained in force even when the prince bishop of Munster, and elector Maximilian Frederic of Cologne, (or rather his all-powerful minister, canon Fr. William Francis, Baron von Furstenberg,) published a school-regulation in 1776. Although this was originally intended for the higher schools, yet it advanced principles applicable to the intellectual life of the whole people. This regulation itself bears the title: "Regulation concerning the method of instruction in the common schools of the chapter of Munster," although it was specially intended for the Latin schools of the country.* Justly does Heppé remark: "Even if Furstenberg had no other merit than that of reforming, nay almost creating, public instruction, establishing a central administration, building school-houses, founding (1790) the normal school, and calling Overberg, the teacher of all the teachers, from his retired position of a chaplain, to its head, and of increasing the income of all teachers, male and female, he would be entitled to the name and the blessings of a public benefactor." His regulation for common schools was considered the pattern of a perfect organization of public instruction, and was preserved by the Prussian government when it took possession of the chapter of Munster in 1802.

b. It was also a Furstenberg (prince bishop Ferdinand II.) who undertook the task of creating schools in his district, the principality of Paderborn, in 1661. He was particularly intent on having the villagers instructed in the catechism on Sundays, on rebuilding dilapidated school-houses, and employing Catholic male and female teachers for the public

* Heppé, vol. iii., p. 194 to 198.

schools. His successor, bishop Herman Werner, (1686) instituted other improvements, which were approved by the synod in 1688, but depended for their execution on the good will of priests, sacristans, and people.

Bishop Frederic William of Westphalia, conscious of the importance of public instruction, decreed in 1788, that all children should attend school from the age of six to fourteen years, and established a commission which should superintend public instruction. When Francis Egon took the reins of government in 1789, he found the village schools in the worst condition, there being in Paderborn itself but three schools for girls, down to the end of the eighteenth century. An additional public school was established by a worthy priest, just before the country was annexed to Prussia.

c. The history of the schools in the former duchy of Westphalia is the same as that of the electorate of Cologne, to which it belonged, and begins with 1656, when archbishop Maximilian Henry ordered that schools should be established and teachers instructed for their office. Yet this order had no effect, till his successor, Clemens Augustus, (1721 to 1761,) organized public instruction, particularly in the south of the duchy. Some villages in this portion of the country, particularly the parish of Werder, in the district of Olpe, sent a large number of perambulating teachers into the surrounding country, where the schools were open only in winter. They kept school during the winter season, boarding with the parents of the children, and receiving only a small pecuniary remuneration, whilst they carried on any trade, or hired themselves out as laborers during the summer. Felbiger's school reform was of importance in this district, too, because that spirit of reform which in general pervaded Catholic Germany, showed itself here in all its peculiarity. The holydays, abrogated in 1770, were declared to be school-days. It was ordered in 1783, that every teacher, before he could be admitted, should have a certificate of his having passed an examination before the academic council, and after 1787, by the school commission for Westphalia, which was organized in 1781. In 1787, it was announced that there would be free instruction for teachers at Bonn during the months of June, July, August, and September, and all candidates for examination were invited to attend. This was the first step towards the establishment of a normal school in the electorate. When it at last became evident that there was a necessity for the organization of a school committee, intimately acquainted with the local wants, it was established for the duchy of Westphalia, in Arensburg, on the 9th of May, 1791, by Maximilian Francis, and rendered quite independent of Bonn. In 1794 it was ordered, that the vicar-general should confer the investiture only on such priests as had a certificate from the school committee of their ability to keep school. Other decrees were published in the following years, for the purpose of improving the schools. The first industrial school was established in Honkhausen, (1769,) and there was soon a number of them all over the duchy.

d. The archbishopric of Cologne was secularized by the peace of Luneville. That portion of it situated on the left bank of the Rhine was annexed by France, whilst the duchy of Westphalia, on the right bank of the Rhine, became part of Hesse-Darmstadt. A Hessian church and school council took the place of the school commission in Arensberg, and, as Heppé says, the active zeal with which the Hessian government improved the schools in all parts of their country, was also extended to the public schools of the duchy. This was proved by many regulations which had in view the progressive instruction of the teachers, as well as their decent sustenance. When, therefore, the duchy of Westphalia was detached from Hesse-Darmstadt and made a part of the Prussian monarchy, the public schools were very efficient. There were in the one hundred and nineteen parishes of the duchy, two hundred and seventy-one schools, (including seventeen girls' schools,) with well instructed male and female teachers. All children were required to attend school from their sixth or seventh year.

The Prussian government developed the organization which it found in connection with the church, by the energy and excellent judgment of the president, Baron von Vincke, who was assisted by Natorp, with whom he had become acquainted in Potsdam, and whom he had induced to coöperate with him.

5. *Posen.*

The province of Posen, on the East of Brandenburg and on the North-east of Silesia, contains 600,000 German, 700,000 Polish, and 90,000 Hebrew inhabitants. It is divided into two districts, Posen and Bromberg, of which the former lies in the South, the latter in the North.

a. The district of Bromberg belonged formerly to the kingdom of Poland, and measures 214.8 geographical square miles. The greater portion, 139 square miles, came under Prussian administration in 1773, when king Frederic II took possession of it, in consequence of the treaty with Russia and Austria on the 5th of August, 1772, and when the king of Poland had formally ceded it by the treaty of Sept. 18th, 1773. Bromberg was selected as the seat of the Prussian government of this country, then called Netze district, and containing the circles of Bromberg, Inowracław, Kamin, and Deutch-Krone. The remaining portion of the present district came into the possession of Prussia twenty years later, viz., after the second division of Poland, on June 17th, 1793, and was made part of the province of South Prussia, then first organized, with the seat of its administration at Posen.

Both administrative districts did not last longer than to the peace of Tilsit, July 9th, 1807, when they came under the government of Saxony, and formed part of the duchy of Warsaw. But the latter ceased to exist on June 18th, 1815, when the grand duchy of Posen, made up by the Netze district and the greater part of the former South Prussia, was formally taken possession of by Prussia. This new province was divided

into the two districts of Bromberg and Posen, of respectively 214.8 and 321.5 square miles surface.

b. There was no public school in that portion of Poland which was taken possession of by Prussia in 1773, viz., in the Netze district; nor was there any in the other portion of the present district of Bromberg before the second division of Poland in 1793. The inhabitants were Poles, except a few Germans and Jews, who had immigrated; their language and customs were Polish, and their religion the Roman Catholic. They were divided into noblemen, serfs, and priests. All the landed property belonged to the nobility, and was tilled by the serfs, who were attached to the soil as part of its value. The latter received a lot, which they were allowed to till on days and hours when their services were not required by their masters. They also had the use of a shanty, cattle, and agricultural implements, which, however, were the property of the noblemen. Journeymen and tradesmen were bondsmen, (except the few free inhabitants of cities and the Jews,) who could be made to work, and be dismissed at will. An independent class of peasants or citizens did not exist. The noblemen had their children educated by private teachers, or they sent them to distant convent-schools, which no longer existed in the boundaries of the Netze district, when Prussia took possession of it. They had been discontinued during the long political disturbances which extinguished the Polish State. The exiled Jesuits, who were dissolved by the bull of pope Clement XIV, (Ganganelli,) on the 21st of July, 1773, had left in the city of Bromberg, in the building of the Jesuits' College, a Catholic Polish school, consisting of three classes, with three teachers, but with so few pupils and these so backward that they could not be put in the third class of a gymnasium. The Poles were every where in the most abandoned condition; their greatest comfort consisted in satisfying their ruling passion for gin. In the older portions of the Prussian monarchy, the peasant and journeyman worked more than the absolute necessities of life required, in order to procure for himself, his wife and children, better clothes, to extend his farm, or to show on market days a better span of horses than his neighbor, but in the Netze district the peasant and laborer, if he worked more than was absolutely necessary, it was for the single purpose of obtaining more gin. It was the pecuniary interest of the nobility and even the clergy to foster this propensity; for it was the noblemen alone who had the privilege in the villages and small towns, of vending this vile article by retail; they had in many places transferred this privilege to the priest as part of his salary. The bad example set by many of the priests in their conduct, and by the noblemen in their thoughtless prodigality and bad economy, essentially contributed to increase the propensity for hard drinking in the common people.

The organists of several Catholic churches, in addition to their official duties and their personal services to the priests, were bound to teach the children. But very few did so, and then very poorly, partly from utter

inability, partly because the priests, on whom they depended for their existence, did not make them do so, but rather required their personal services for themselves and the church, to the greatest extent possible. The Prussian government found, in 1773, but nineteen organists who, as Catholic teachers, instructed the children in the Polish language, in the catechism, and in the necessary assistance during church service.

c. Many Germans of the Lutheran confession had immigrated from Suabia, Westphalia, and Pomerania into Poland during the Thirty Years' War, and in the beginning of the eighteenth century; they had bought land from the noblemen for cultivation, binding themselves to pay an annual rent. They formed colonies, but dwelt separate from each other, each on his farm, which he had fenced in. They were called "Haulander," in the popular language "Hollander," and bear this name still, derived from the Polish word "oledry," which means a field, after having been cleared and cultivated. They were not bondsmen, but real proprietors of their farms, and they engaged, according to their choice, such laborers, tailors, shoemakers, smiths and joiners as could read and write German. They had their children instructed by them in reading, writing, and the Lutheran catechism, and a sermon from a collection read to them on Sundays. They gave them wages in return, and a lot for their own use, whilst the colonists cultivated it. They built a school-house afterwards, which contained rooms for dwelling and storing, and a larger one to be used as school-room and as meeting-house for the community on Sunday. Several of such German colonies, though separated from each other by miles, united to build a church and parsonage, engaged and paid for the services of a Lutheran clergyman, whom they, however, allowed little or no influence on the school, considering themselves its only masters, as they had founded and built it, and being unwilling to have their right of appointing and discharging the schoolmaster at pleasure, in any way impaired. There were thirteen such schoolmasters, perfectly unprepared for their office, in the Netze district at the time (1773) when the Prussian government took possession of it. Including the nineteen Catholic organists before mentioned, there were, in all, thirty-two so-called schoolmasters, who, however, did not teach in real public schools, nor were they able to do so.

d. Frederic II endeavored to put the inhabitants of these new possessions in more direct connection with the old provinces. He improved, for this purpose, the navigation of the Netze, and dug a canal (four geographical miles long) from Nakel to Bromberg, joining the Netze with the navigable Brahe, and thus the districts of the Elbe and Oder with that of the Vistula. The construction of this canal and its ten locks was commenced on the 1st of March, 1773, and in September, 1774, merchant ships sailed from Hamburg to Danzig and into the Baltic. To perform this labor, a great number of colonists and laborers of the Evangelical connection had been transferred from the old provinces to the marshes of the Netze and to Bromberg. To care for their spiritual interests, the

king sent, in 1778, into the Netze district, four evangelic candidates, one of whom was settled in Bromberg. This town, called by the Poles, Bydgoszez, from that time began to revive, having been, from a once flourishing condition, by several destructive sieges, and the plague from 1709 to 1711, almost depopulated and ruined. The king had at once one hundred brick houses built, at the expense of the treasury, and ordered public schools to be established in the Netze district. To the counselor of finances, (Von Brenkenhof,) whom he had sent as special commissary, to take the administration into his hands, and to report on the condition of the country, the king addressed a cabinet order dated Potsdam, October 6th, 1774, which reads thus, and bears witness to the minute attention which the great king bestowed on his newly acquired possession.

My best, and faithful counselor:—In order to obtain a reliable fund, large enough to yield 10,000 thalers annually for the support of schoolmasters, absolutely required in West Prussia, and which I can not well take from the revenues of that country, which are not yet sufficient for all the necessary expenses, I have resolved to buy rural estates, the production of which will be worth annually 10,000 thalers, but which can not be realized before next Trinity-day. Try, therefore, to find out where such estates may be had, and report to me. They shall be called "School estates," and their revenues shall be devoted to the payment of the salaries of schoolmasters exclusively.

I am your gracious king,

FREDERIC.

The sum of 200,000 thalers, for the purchase of the "School estates," was ready at the appointed time, the estates were bought, and from the revenues thus obtained, twenty school-houses were built in different places in the country, particularly in the villages of the crown-land, the farmers having to contribute nothing, but to transport the material from the royal forests, and assist in the building of the houses by their labor. Each school was endowed with four to six acres, and furnished from the royal forests with six to eight cords of wood annually, for the use of the teacher, who received, besides, a salary of sixty thalers per annum out of the fund. As there were no qualified teachers in the Netze district, nineteen of the Catholic and one of the Evangelic confession were transferred from West Prussia, who were to be able to teach both in German and Polish. These twenty public schools were opened in 1778. The children were instructed in religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic. Subsequently more public schools were established, of a higher as well as of an elementary grade, endowed by royal munificence. The revenues of confiscated property were paid into the fund for the improvement of schools, and the cabinet order of May 25th, 1799, turned over to the same funds the proceeds of the sale of tobacco, "because," says the order, "the country can replace the latter, and can not employ the same amount to greater advantage, than by improving the schools, whether under royal or private patronage."

6. This liberality of the king stimulated the emulation of the nobles and of the communities, and there were soon public schools on the pri-

vate estates. It had even effect on the town of Trzemeszno, near the boundary of the Netze district, but at that time within the kingdom of Poland. The intelligent and very humane abbot of the convent of the Augustines at that place, Von Kosmowski, founded a public school from the revenues of the abbey and his private property. It was a kind of district-school, (*szkola wydziatowa*), of three classes, for all the boys in the town and surrounding country, with twenty scholarships; of which twelve were set apart for sons of impoverished nobles, who received board and instruction free of expense. He endowed the institute with houses and lands, and engaged as teachers not only brethren of the abbey, but well qualified laymen, on the condition that the boys in the lower classes should receive the necessary elementary instruction in religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic, in the Polish language, and that the boys in the upper classes should be taught Latin, German, French, geography, history, mathematics, and natural sciences, besides religion. It was opened on the 4th of May, 1776, and was so very successful, that, at the death of the founder in 1804, the number of pupils amounted to three hundred. In 1805, a rector, Dr. Haege, Evangelic, and altogether unacquainted with the Polish language, took charge, under whom the school deteriorated, and had (1808) but ten pupils, but it rose again in 1809, under the Catholic rector, Meissner, to one hundred pupils, in two classes.

The monks of the convent of the Franciscans in the small town of Pakosë, in the Netze district, stimulated by the success of the Trzemesznova school, established (1787) in their convent a boys' school, with the consent of the Prussian government, which even allowed two hundred thalers and twenty-four cords of wood annually for the employment of a lay teacher in mathematics and natural sciences. The principal instruction was given in the Polish language gratis by two Franciscan monks, the guardian of the convent acting as rector, without, however, giving lessons. This school increased to two hundred and thirty pupils, in three classes, and was provided by the convent with a separate building. The Pakosë school, as well as that in Trzemeszno, inspired parents with the wish to have their children educated in a wide circuit of country, and they exerted a very beneficent influence on adjacent districts. The schools were soon established in the same manner as in the Netze district, so that in both portions of the present district of Bromberg there were two hundred and sixty-seven public schools, (seventy-seven Catholic, one hundred and eighty Evangelic,) when it was joined to the duchy of Warsaw, in consequence of the peace of Tilsit, July 9th, 1807, and thus transferred from the Prussian to the Saxon government.

g. The latter established at once a special administration for schools, called "*Isba edukacyjna*," i. e. education room. The president, senator and woywoda Stanislaw Potocky, issued on the 12th of January, 1808, a very good and comprehensive "regulation concerning the establishment of elementary schools in towns and villages," in the Polish language, and

in German translation, which directed the establishment of schools in towns, market-places and villages, gave minute instructions concerning the school associations, concerning the superintendence of the schools by local school-counselors, the buildings, the salaries, the contributions of the school associations, and of the noble landed proprietors, the qualification of teachers, school-books, &c.

This regulation was sent for publication to all the towns and villages, together with a proclamation in Polish and German, which directed the attention of all the inhabitants, particularly of the landed proprietors and clergymen, to the absolute necessity of establishing schools for a better education of the people, and admonished them to show more activity and willingness. It is stated in this proclamation that the good intentions of the former Saxon government (from 1697 to 1763, when the Saxon electors were kings of Poland) had been frustrated by war, but that recently the exertions of a foreign and neighborly (Prussia) government, by its solicitude for public education, had sufficiently proved its importance. Although the regulation was excellent, yet it was not fully executed, partly in consequence of the brief existence of the duchy of Warsaw, and partly on account of the continued calamities which befell the country during Napoleon's wars. The progress of public instruction was very much injured by an order published November 27th, 1809, according to which the Polish language alone should be used during the lessons in all elementary schools, even though the greater number of pupils or all were Germans; and that all teachers who had not learned Polish within two years, so as to be able to teach reading, writing and arithmetic in that language, should not be allowed to remain in office.

The "Isba" did not care for the Evangelic schools; many of which, and generally the best, suffered from the persecution of the Catholic lower officers of the government and of the clergy. Most of the Evangelic schools engaged teachers without examination, and the sanction of the authorities, though utterly unprepared for the office, for short periods of time, at the smallest salary possible.

h. The treaty of Vienna of May 3d, 1815, terminated the ephemeral existence of the duchy of Warsaw, turning its larger portion over to Russia, and the smaller portion, (*viz.*, the Netze district and the former South Prussia,) to the kingdom of Prussia, which occupied these districts (June 8th, 1815,) and named them the "grand duchy of Posen." Privy counselor Zerboni di Sposetti, a distinguished landed proprietor, was its first administrator, under the title of president. The province was soon after subdivided into two districts; one consisting of seventeen circles, with its centre in Posen, the other of nine circles, with its seat of government in Bromberg.

i. The Bromberg government found (1815) in its department but two hundred and eighty-nine elementary schools, *viz.*, one hundred and ninety-six Evangelic, eighty-three Catholic, nine mixed, and one Hebrew. As the duchy of Warsaw had (1807) already two hundred and sixty-

seven elementary schools, their number had only increased from 1807 to 1815 by six Evangelic, six Catholic, nine mixed, and one Hebrew school. There were no gymnasiums or high-schools besides those in Trzemeszno, Pakosë, and Bromberg. The first named was reduced to two classes, with two teachers and one hundred pupils, and differed from an elementary school, only as the more advanced pupils received instruction in the rudiments of Latin and goemetry ; the Polish language alone was used. The Pakosë convent-school had also degenerated ; it had still three classes, and followed its original school-plan in part, but it lacked teachers and money to meet the most moderate claims on it, and it was discontinued in 1819. But in the same year, an elementary school was established in its place, much needed indeed, with two classes and two Catholic teachers, and received the pecuniary assistance which the State had formerly allowed to the former institution (two hundred thalers and twenty-four cords of wood annually,) as well as the school-house, repaired and refitted.

The higher Polish school in Bromberg had added to its three classes with three teachers, one elementary class and teacher during the Saxon administration. But it was (1815) in a very wretched condition, though it had still one hundred and thirty pupils, who were prepared for the *Tertia* of a gymnasium, both in the Polish and German languages. This town of six thousand inhabitants had, however, no common school, though it had been the seat of the Saxon prefect and of the consistory. The public Protestant German school, established by Frederic II, (1785,) had ceased to exist in 1808, and the dilapidated school-house had been transferred to the garrison as a guard-house. There were, however, sixteen private schools that had a very precarious existence ; two candidates of theology and one Jewish teacher kept the three best of them, and had respectively fifteen, ten, and eleven pupils—the others less, (six for boys, and seven for boys and girls,) kept by two sailors, one cobbler, one tailor, one musician, one widow of a farmer, and one, the wife of a soldier. Two-thirds of the remaining fifty-three towns of the district of Bromberg had no schools at all.

k. Teacher Reichhelm of the Königsberg gymnasium was made, in 1816, an Evangelic counselor of schools, and attached to the Bromberg government ; he labored with distinguished zeal and happy results on the organization of the schools in the district, till he became a member of the Board of Education in the city of Berlin in 1826. His directing power extended to the Catholic schools, though the Catholic provost of Bromberg, who was at the same time Catholic member of the Board, was directed to assist him. Reichhelm's work was continued by his successor, counselor Runge, formerly director of the normal school in Coeslin ; he was efficiently assisted, in the Catholic schools, by the Catholic provost of Bromberg, Frank, who was also a member of the Board. Frank having been promoted, in 1838, to the position of canon in Posen, the Evangelic board had also the direction of the Catholic schools, till, in

1845, when the experienced and intelligent director of the Catholic normal school in Posen, Nepilly, was made a member of the board. Nepilly died in 1864. Runge was (1865) pensioned, being seventy-six years old, and was succeeded by Jungklass, director of the normal school in Steinau on the Oder.

l. The Bromberg government commenced, soon after the reoccupation of the province of Posen by Prussia, the work of organization, beginning with Bromberg. A public elementary school for boys, (four classes, one rector, and three teachers,) and one for girls, (one class, one male and one female teacher,) were established as early as October 8th, 1817, for which the town voted 2,500 thalers annually. At the same time was the *szkola glówna* changed into a royal gymnasium. The normal school was soon after established, with one provisional rector and two teachers. Though originally intended for both Evangelic and Catholic teachers, it was made, in 1826, an exclusively Evangelic normal school of two classes, under the Evangelic preacher and rector, Gruzmacher. It remained the only Evangelic normal school in the province of Posen till 1865, when another one was established in Kozmin, district of Posen.

m. When the schools in Bromberg, the largest town of the district, had been partially organized, the other towns, viz., Gnesen, Inowracław, Nackel, Schneidemühl, and Gernikau, and the larger villages, in which there were not as yet any schools, were attended to. Yet the first steps taken, both here and in Bromberg, were far from being sufficient.

The city of Bromberg had six thousand inhabitants at the time of the Prussian reoccupation; at the end of 1864 it had increased to 23,670, inclusive of the garrison of 1,709 men. Previous to 1817, there existed no public school and no teacher, except the *szkola glówna* with four teachers; the first public elementary school, with six teachers, was established in 1807; at the end of 1864, there were, exclusive of the royal gymnasium and the normal school, fifty-five male and four female teachers employed in the public schools. These schools were for both Catholic and Evangelic children, and under the patronage of the city, viz.:

(a) A real-school of the first order, thirteen classes, six hundred and twenty-one pupils, seventeen teachers, four assistants; (b) a citizens' school, five classes, two hundred and twenty-eight pupils, six teachers; (c) a girls' high-school, nine classes, three hundred and eighty-seven pupils, eight male and three female teachers; in the upper class, (*selecta*), besides seven assistant teachers, employed also at other schools; (d) a girls' school of the second order, five classes, three hundred and four pupils, five male, one female teacher; (e) four elementary schools in the suburbs, for boys and girls: three of them have each four classes and three hundred pupils, with four teachers each; one has one class, one teacher, one hundred pupils. To these add the elementary schools not under the patronage of the city: (f) one elementary school of the Old Lutherans, one class, one teacher, one hundred pupils, boys and girls;

(g) one school where the pupils of the normal school practice teaching, with one hundred pupils and one regular teacher.

All these establishments count two thousand seven hundred and forty pupils, taught by fifty-nine teachers; average, forty-six pupils to one teacher. The school marked (a) belongs really to the higher schools, yet the pupils are mostly young, and the preparatory department, with one hundred and twenty-one pupils, must be undoubtedly counted among the elementary schools. Add the large number of pupils of the royal gymnasium who are of an age which makes their attendance at school obligatory, and add the one hundred and thirty boys of the three classes of the preparatory department, which undoubtedly belongs to the elementary schools, and add, moreover, two hundred and fifty children who receive instruction in private schools; and it will be found that ample provision is made for all the children whom the law obliges to attend school, about one-sixth of the population. There was, in 1816, no school in the country round the city at half a geographical mile in radius; whilst there were ten public elementary schools in 1864.

A similar development took place in Gnesen, Inowraclaw, Schneidemühl, Trzemeszno, and Schoenlauke. There was no public school in Gnesen as late as 1816, except the Catholic normal school for priests. One elementary school for all the children was later established. There are at present: (a) a gymnasium for both confessions, six classes, two hundred and fifty-nine pupils, eleven teachers; (b) an Evangelic elementary school, four classes, four male, one female teacher; (c) a Catholic elementary school, five classes, five teachers; (d) a public Hebrew elementary school, five classes, five teachers. The town employs, therefore, in all these schools, twenty-six teachers.

The organization of schools advanced in a similar manner in Inowraclaw. It had the following schools at the end of 1864: (a) a gymnasium for both confessions, six classes, and one preparatory department, thirteen teachers, two hundred and seventy-four pupils; (b) an Evangelic elementary school, four classes, four teachers; (c) a Catholic elementary school, four classes, four teachers; (d) a public Hebrew elementary school, three classes, three teachers; together, twenty-four teachers of public schools.

In Schneidemühl were (1846:) (a) a progymnasium for both confessions, five classes, one hundred and sixty pupils, eight teachers; (b) an Evangelic elementary school, four classes for boys, four for girls, eight teachers; (c) a Catholic elementary school, three classes, three teachers; (d) a public Hebrew elementary school, three classes, three teachers; together, twenty-two teachers of public schools.

The institute in Trzemeszno, mentioned above, having two classes and two teachers, was more and more extended, was recognized by government, in 1834, as a progymnasium, (6th, 5th, 4th and 3d classes of a gymnasium,) and in 1839 as a Catholic gymnasium, with six classes, nine teachers, and two hundred and fifty-six pupils; and in 1862 it had nine

classes, sixteen teachers, and four hundred and sixty pupils. The pupils were mostly Poles, and the language used in teaching, Polish in the lower, and German in the upper classes. The government saw itself compelled first to close, and then to discontinue this school altogether, because, when the Polish insurrection of 1863 broke out, a large number of pupils of the upper classes joined the insurgents in Poland, and because the inhabitants of the town assisted in influencing the youths in favor of the insurrection. But the town had, at the end of 1864, the following elementary schools established in 1832: (a) an Evangelic German school, one class, one teacher; (b) a Catholic elementary school, three classes, three teachers; (c) a public Hebrew school, one class, one teacher. A further development of the two first named schools may be expected; there has, moreover, a rector-school, for both confessions, with three classes, been established instead of the gymnasium, to prepare pupils for the third class of a gymnasium or real-school.

There was no public school in Schoenlauke in 1816, but at the end of 1846 there were: (a) a high-school for boys, with four classes, four teachers; (b) an Evangelic elementary school, five classes, one rector, four teachers; (c) a public Hebrew school, two classes, two teachers. There are, besides, in seven villages, Evangelic elementary schools, with two classes and two teachers each, and in two villages with three classes and three teachers.

n. The number of inhabitants was, in 1817, 272,284; in 1864, 540,260—hence it has nearly doubled. In 1817 there were 93,574 of Evangelic, 162,902 of Catholic confession, 15,771 Jews, and 1 Mennonite; the number of the former confession to the latter was as twenty-three to forty, or five to nine; persons of Evangelic confession, therefore, were less than one-half; of Hebrew religion, one-seventeenth of the whole population. At the end of 1864 there were 219,324 of Evangelic, 295,375 of Catholic confession, 10 Greek Catholics, 1,280 Dissenters, 13 Mennonites, 24,258 Jews. Hence persons of Evangelic to those of Catholic confession were as ninety to one hundred and twenty, or three to four; the former have therefore increased; the number of Jews decreased to one in twenty-two of the population. The inhabitants of Evangelic confession are all of German stock, and speak German; those of the Roman Catholic confession are, with a few exceptions, of Polish nationality, and speak Polish. In the popular language, the expressions "German and Evangelic," "Polish and Catholic," are synonymous; a German church means an Evangelic, and a Polish a Roman Catholic church. The Jews and Dissenters speak German, so that about half the aggregate population speak Polish.

o. This composition of the population in nationality, language, and religion, rendered the organization of public schools very difficult, the more so as the German population is not concentrated, as in other districts, but greatly mixed up with the Poles. The government was therefore induced to establish, during the first years, schools common for both

confessions, hoping to level by degrees the differences between the two nationalities—at all events to lay the foundation for a peaceful intercourse between Germans and Poles. In such schools, which had only one teacher for the children of both confessions and nationalities, the character of the school necessarily depended on the nationality and confession of that teacher. These schools were, later, separated from those common for both confessions, and called mixed schools, and were counted among the Evangelic or Catholic schools, according to the teacher's confession. The other schools had teachers of both confessions, and the children were separately instructed in the principles of their confession. (See *Annals of the Prussian public schools*, by Beckedorf, 1826, vol. iv. p. 6.) The experience of a few years proved, however, that the elementary schools common to both confessions did not produce the concord between the different confessions and nationalities; that the difference of the language spoken by Evangelic and Catholic children impaired the success even of the best teachers, and that, moreover, the instruction in religion was very deficient. The Polish and German children were to be instructed in their mother tongue; the Polish language must not be suppressed or neglected, because that would have been contrary to the promise of the king, made at the occupation of the province, in the proclamation of May 15th, 1815: "You will be embodied in my monarchy, without losing your nationality. Your language shall have equal rights with the German in all public transactions." The teacher had, therefore, to give his instruction in both languages, and was continually compelled to translate what he had just said in one language into the other, which seriously interfered with his success, (even though he was equally conversant with both languages,) and with the progress of the pupils. Hence the necessity of dividing the schools according to confession. And this was done by the government quite systematically, when the convent of the knights of St. John in Gnesen, whose funds were to be employed for the improvement of the town-schools, was dissolved, and the king, by the cabinet order of October 4th, 1821, has pronounced against schools common for both confessions. The minister of Instruction then sent a circular note, on the 27th of April, 1822, to all the district governments of the monarchy, in which he expressed himself thus:

Experience has taught, that schools common for both confessions do not allow that the proper attention be paid to their religion, the principal element of education: and this is quite natural. The intention to produce a better feeling between the persons of different confessions has never or rarely been accomplished; every dissension between teachers of different confessions or between teachers and parents, degenerates into a religious dispute, which not unfrequently embitters whole parishes, not to mention other evils. His majesty the king has graciously pleased to give his agreement to these opinions of the minister in his cabinet order of October 4th. But these establishments shall not be a rule. Exceptions will take place, when necessity shall dictate them, or when the union should be the result of the spontaneous resolution of the parishes, advised by their preachers, and approved of by the lay and ecclesiastic authorities."

p. Clergymen of both confessions referred to this circular in their con-

tinued opposition against the schools common for both confessions which were still existing. In consequence of a remonstrance of the president of the province against the establishment of schools for each confession in small towns with a mixed population, a modifying cabinet order was published on March 23d, 1829 :

- I send you inclosed an extract of a report of president Von Baumann to the minister of the Interior, and the report of the latter to me concerning the instruction in schools in the smaller towns of the grand duchy of Posen. President Baumann appears to be apprehensive that the establishment of schools for each confession will produce the result, that the moderate means of the smaller towns, thus divided, will prevent the organization of either. Though I have approved of your opinion, that the union of the schools should neither be forced on the one nor the other confession, yet there can not exist any scruple to favor such a union, when want of proper funds should prevent the proper establishment of schools for each confession, and the parishes of both confessions agree in the organization of one school for both. I therefore desire that you should examine into this affair, and provide president Baumann with proper instructions. I have ordered the minister of the interior to influence the local authorities of small towns, so that they may endeavor to make provisions for the expenses connected with the improvement of elementary instruction."

g. This modification of the circular note of April 27th, 1822, was without effect, because the agreement of the members of both parishes was made the condition for the establishment of schools of both confessions, and because the obstinate opposition of both parties, based on the difference of nationality, language and confession, prevented any such agreement. The influence of the clergy encouraged this hostility, which even increased, when, in consequence of the insurrection in Warsaw, (November 29th, 1830,) the revolutionary tendency also spread in the district of Bromberg. Many of the most respectable Polish landlords had their estates confiscated, because they had sided with Poland, contrary to the strict royal prohibition, and had taken part in the battles against the Russian army. Even when the wide spread and bloody insurrection in Poland had been subdued, and the confiscation had been mitigated into fines by the clemency of the king, the hostility of the Poles against the Germans, i. e. of the Catholics against the Evangelic inhabitants of the district, did not change, but has continued, with short interruptions, to our days. This hostility grew more intense, when the secularization of the still existing convents was proclaimed in 1833, and the question of the intermarriages between persons of the two confessions caused disturbances in 1837, in consequence of which the archbishop of Gnesen and Posen, Von Dunin, was arrested in 1839 and imprisoned in the fortress of Colberg. The continued incitements of influential Poles to restore an independent kingdom, produced an armed insurrection in 1846 against the government, and when this was for a time suppressed, it broke out again in 1848, and during its continuance nearly every where the German population had to protect itself against the Poles with arms in hand. The Polish army was soon conquered and dissolved, but the secret plots for the restoration of an independent Polish

empire, fostered by the landlords and clergy of the province, in intimate connection with the orders received from the national party in Poland, did not cease. The year 1863 saw again open war between the Polish insurgents and the Russian armies, which lasted till 1865, and produced great excitement in the Polish population of the Prussian province against the German population and the Prussian government.

r. These events greatly retarded the establishment of new public schools, and then only such for one confession; they also resulted in the separation of schools for both confessions in such for one, so that at the close of the year 1864 there were in the whole district not more than seven schools for both confessions, in spite of the greatly mixed population. These seven schools are all in the city of Bromberg, in which the German language predominates, and the Catholic inhabitants are in the minority. But the number of schools for both confessions with but one teacher is still considerable, a great majority of the children being of the teacher's confession. They are mostly in villages, and are counted to the Catholic or Protestant schools according to the teacher's confession. The teacher of a neighboring school comes every Wednesday and Saturday afternoon, and teaches, for two hours, under the superintendence of a preacher, the principles of his confession. The remuneration of this teacher—mostly twelve to fifteen thalers a year—is to be paid by the whole community, and not by that parish to which the children belong, (circular note of February 13th, 1855.) The regular teachers of such schools have, however, to battle against the great difficulty of the different languages spoken by the Evangelic and Catholic (German and Polish) children, which greatly impedes progress, even if they be very experienced and able.

s. The Saxon government (from 1807 to 1815) had ordered that the Polish language should be used in all elementary schools of the duchy of Warsaw, whether the children were of Polish or German nationality. As the Prussian government could not allow such an injustice to the German Evangelic communities, it ordered at once that the German language should be used in schools, and extended this order to schools for both confessions having an Evangelic teacher, when the community was made up of a large majority of Evangelic families. The Polish language was only used for instruction in Catholic schools, and in those schools for both confessions in which the large majority consisted of Catholics, and in which the teacher belonged to that confession. The German children were, in the latter school, in a great disadvantage indeed, as well as the Poles in schools with an Evangelic teacher; yet this disadvantage could only be removed by degrees, by establishing new schools for each confession. This could not be considered unjust to the Poles, and yet the Polish members of the provincial diets complained loudly about it in every session since 1827, growing more and more urgent, in spite of the explanations given by the government. The king, on the 6th of August, 1841, to the petition of the fifth diet, answered as follows: "Our most

gracious intention is to show respect and give protection to the Polish language, so dear to our subjects of the Polish nationality. We shall instruct our minister of State in this sense, so that the Polish language shall be used for instruction in schools, together with the German, in such a manner as will be in harmony with our intentions as father of the whole country." The minister issued then, by the consent of the king, on the 24th of May, 1842, an instruction for the provincial board of education and the administration of the province of Posen, concerning the use of the German and Polish languages in the schools of the province, which was published by the government papers in the districts both of Posen and Bromberg, and by which the authorities in the province have been hitherto guided. It gives directions for elementary schools in towns and villages, the normal schools, the gymnasium, and real-schools.

The directions for the elementary schools in villages are these: 1, In all village schools, attended by a large number of children of German and Polish nationalities, there shall, as far as the number of proper candidates permits, teachers be employed who are equally conversant with the German and Polish languages. 2, The teachers shall use both languages in such a manner that every child may receive instruction in his mother-tongue; 3, The Polish language shall be principally used in such schools in which the great majority of children are Poles, and the German language shall principally be used in those schools in which the great majority of children consists of Germans; 4, The knowledge of the German language being absolutely necessary to every inhabitant of the province in all conditions of life, so much so that the parents have hitherto often requested the teacher to practice the use of that language with their children, the German language shall therefore be the object of instruction in all schools. And the teachers of German schools shall also give instruction in the Polish language if the parents of the children shall express their wish that this should be done.

The instructions for the elementary schools in towns are these: 1, The language used in the schools shall be determined on by the great majority of the nationality of the children, and by necessity. Such teachers shall be employed, as far as possible, as are conversant with both languages; 2, In the upper classes of all schools, the German language shall be taught, trade and commerce rendering it absolutely necessary, and it shall be required that the pupils be able, on leaving school, to speak and write German fluently.

t. The very large number of Jews in the department required the particular attention of the government concerning the proper school education of their children. They live only in towns more concentrated, in some they are even in the majority. One-half of the whole population in Rogowo are Jews, in Fordow and Ianawiec nearly half, in Wilkowo more than one-third, in Godziesen, Exin, Labichin, Schokken and Inowracław, nearly one-third, in Samoczin and Czarnikau more than one-fourth, and in Gnesen and Strzelno nearly one fourth. The Hebrew

children were sent to the Christian schools as they were successively established, during the first ten years of the Prussian administration. But this practice produced evil effects on both Christian and Hebrew children in those towns in which there was a large Hebrew population. The Hebrew children could not receive instruction in their religion in the Christian schools; besides, they did not attend school on Friday afternoons, on Saturdays, and on all the holidays, for which the parents could not be taken to account. The teachers, seeing their schools almost empty, could not regularly advance in their instruction. The irregularity of the attendance of the Hebrew children caused a similar irregularity of the Christian pupils, because they knew that the teacher would be prevented from teaching in the regular way, when the Jews, one-half, one-third, or one-fourth of the whole number of scholars, were absent. The government endeavored, therefore, with great perseverance, since 1824, to establish public Hebrew elementary schools, with examined teachers of the Hebrew religion. It had, however, to battle against the obstinate opposition of the Hebrew communities, governed as they were by the grossest habits, and living in the most disgusting filth; besides, the rabbins, very little better than the other Jews, showed the greatest hostility against any education of the children. The Hebrew children were henceforth permitted to attend Christian schools only in those places in which their number was very small in proportion to the Christian pupils. There have been established thirty-two public Hebrew schools in the department from 1824 to the end of 1864; among these is one (in Gnesen) with five classes; six others with three classes; nine with two classes; and sixteen with one class each; so that these schools have fifty-seven classes, with as many examined teachers. Of these, fifty-two are of the Hebrew religion, which have been appointed by the Hebrew school authorities, and confirmed in their position by the government, like the Christian teachers.*

The attendance is very regular, and these schools are really in a very good condition. The Evangelic preacher of the place is commissioned by the government to superintend them technically, generally without receiving any remuneration; in some places they are paid a fixed salary by the Hebrew community. Each of these schools has a school committee, consisting of three or four members of the Hebrew community, the Evangelic preacher, and the mayor, who presides. These committees are responsible to the civil officer presiding over the administration of the circle, in all external arrangements; with regard to instruction, school discipline, and conduct of the teachers, they are responsible to the superintendent, i. e. the inspector of the Evangelic schools of the circle, as directed by the instruction for school committees of the district, d. d. February 21st, 1834.

* There are in the province of Posen four Hebrew schools, each with one class, which have been established by the Association for the Propagation of the Christian religion among the Jews. They are supported by this association, and provided with Christian teachers. The children are not compelled to attend school, and do attend very irregularly.

u. The Evangelic preachers and Catholic priests are obliged to call all the teachers of elementary schools of their parishes every month once for a meeting, to arrange all the objects of their official duties, so as to promote the improvement of the schools and the intellectual development of the teachers. They must also superintend the proper preparation of candidates for the office of teachers, and be present during the annual public examination of each school of their parishes, usually at Easter. The superintendents and Catholic deans are instructed to institute at their annual church visitations, personally, a revision of all the schools of their parochial district, and to report to government. The district of Bromberg has about double the number of Catholic priests and parishes as Evangelic, but much fewer Catholic than Evangelic elementary schools, (as in 1864, three hundred and fifty-four Catholic and four hundred Evangelic schools.) There are, therefore, few schools to each Catholic parish, four at the highest; to each Evangelic parish many, e. g., Bromberg thirty-one, another seventeen, several others thirteen. The eight superintendents of the department, of which one has seventy-six elementary schools with eighty-six classes, another sixty-five, with sixty-nine classes, are permitted to visit every year one-half respectively one-third of the whole number of schools. The very great extent of the superintendents' districts caused also the cabinet order of February 18th, 1820, by which the superintendents of the province of Posen are authorized to charge to the government the traveling expenses at the same rates which are allowed to government officers. This is a privilege not granted to the superintendents of any other province.

There are sixteen deans, who have the inspection of the Catholic schools, of whom two live in the district of Posen, near the frontier of the district of Bromberg, in which there are some churches and schools belonging to their diocese. These two, and those five whose dioceses lie in that part of the district of Bromberg which formerly belonged to South Prussia, have received, at an early period, pecuniary assistance, during their annual visitation of churches and schools, viz., forty-one thalers a year for the maintenance of a vicar, and three thalers for each parish; the five deans mentioned before draw respectively one hundred and one, eighty-six, seventy-four, seventy-four, and seventy-one thalers annually from the treasury. The nine remaining deans, living in the former Netze district, receive no remuneration, though the largest number of Catholic schools are established in their dioceses. Add to this the fact that the greater number of Catholic priests of this department show very little inclination to assist in the progress of public schools, and it can not cause astonishment that they are very negligent in their superintendence of the schools, and that the Catholic elementary schools are so very backward, the more so as the teachers have to solve the difficult problem to teach the children in the Polish language, and at the same time to instruct them properly in the German.

v. There are much fewer Catholic than Evangelic public elementary

schools in the district, in proportion to the relative number of inhabitants of both confessions, although the government has established more Catholic than Evangelic schools since 1815. The number of Evangelic to Catholic inhabitants is as five to nine, wherefore the Catholic population would need nearly double the number of schools. Yet the government found, in 1815, but eighty-three Catholic and one hundred and ninety-six Evangelic schools. The last census, at the close of 1864, gives 219,324 Evangelic and 295,375 Catholic inhabitants, a ratio of three to four; the number of Evangelic public schools four hundred and forty, of Catholic three hundred and fifty-four, though the proper proportion would be five hundred and eighty-eight. The commander-in-chief of the second Prussian army corps reports, in agreement with the statements given above, that there had been found among the enrolled recruits a great many more Catholics than Evangelic men who had not had any education in schools, viz., in 1864, two hundred and forty-two men of the Catholic, forty-three of the Evangelic confession, and one Jew. And yet this shows a great improvement, for in 1837 to 1838 there were found without school education 44.32 per cent., and in 1864 to 1865 but 16.30 per cent, and in the whole monarchy, 5.58 per cent.

w. The government had great difficulty in finding the means to provide for the establishment and the maintenance of the new schools. It is the communities which have to make provisions, according to the general code, (Part II, Title 12, §§ 29, sq.,) for the schools, if there are no foundations, and these did not exist any where. The proprietors of landed estates are only obliged to furnish, free of expense, such building materials as are grown or found on those estates where the schools have been established, and to assist their subjects to pay the school fees according to necessity. But many landlords have no timber on their estates, and hence they were free from all obligations. On the other hand, they protested against their obligation to assist their subjects in paying the school fees, because the peasants were no longer their subjects in the meaning of the law. This latter protest was allowed to be legal both by the government and by the courts, for many years. The proprietors of landed estates were therefore relieved of this obligation, and many also of that to furnish timber free of expense. Yet all of them claimed the privilege of appointing the schoolmasters on their estates, of presenting their names for approval to the government, and, when approved of, of installing them, although they did not contribute any thing to the sustenance of the teachers, not even a site for the school-house, or a small lot for the use of the schoolmasters. The Prussian government found (1815) the villagers very poor, the cultivation of their land in a wretched condition, and overburdened in consequence of the long war. Now the Saxon government had, by a decree on January 12th, 1808, imposed on the estates pretty considerable obligations for the support of elementary schools, which were not to be found in the Prussian code; the Bromberg government considered itself therefore entitled to consider

the Saxon decree still in force, at least during the first years of its administration. These obligations were: §§ 10 to 12. To give building lots free of expense for all school-houses, a garden for each teacher, all building materials for all school-houses, without exception, and to furnish the requisite number of carpenters and bricklayers. § 14. Contributions to defray the other expenses for the building, for the fencing in of the yard and garden, and for the purchase of the school fixtures. § 23. A quantity of grain for the schoolmasters, when the landlords have servants whose children attend school. § 24. Wood for fuel for all school buildings, when there are forests on the estates, or contributions in money where there are none. Complaints about these obligations were of rare occurrence. But the first complaint brought to the notice of the government in Berlin, caused it to cancel the proceedings of the administration by the rescript of January 25th, 1819, and to direct it to be exclusively guided by the prescripts of the Prussian code, because all former decrees for the province were annulled by its reoccupation. Thus the administration had to limit its claims on the landlords as stated before. It was compelled to exempt all landlords from any obligation, when the inhabitants of their estates had to send their children to a school established on another estate. The rescript of the minister of state of November 14th, 1858, changed this incongruity in a special case, declaring that such landlord should contribute as much to the support of the school, as the members of the association did on whose estates the schools were established, without regard to there being children on their estate who attended that school or not. The general application of this decree caused, however, innumerable complaints of such landlords, and this had effect in so far as their contributions were limited to one-half per cent. of those fathers of family who belonged to the school association. But even then the complaints did not cease; more than one hundred landlords brought them to the knowledge of the provincial assembly, which caused endless deliberations in both houses, without any result. The question was left undecided, till a court should have an opportunity of settling it. This occurred in a special case by the higher tribunal on the 14th of July, 1865, which completely confirmed the resolution of the minister of state of November 14th, 1858.

α. These circumstances render it necessary that the impoverished communities in which there are schools, must pay very heavy contributions, considering their pecuniary condition. The distribution of these contributions is regulated by the code, § 81, *Title 12, Part II*, and there are only three towns in the department in which an additional small school fee is to be paid for each child, from which, however, the indigent parents are mostly exempt. It is the treasury of the state which always, with rare exceptions, comes forward with extraordinary pecuniary assistance, when school-houses must be built, but without accepting the obligation of doing so for the future; a special fund for the province, amounting to 6,000 thalers annually, has been formed for the last thirty

years, of which the district of Bromberg has mostly drawn 2,000 thalers, and sometimes even more, every year. The teachers also receive an addition to their salary from this royal fund.

The law of April 8th, 1823, regulating the relation between landlords and peasants, was of great assistance. In § 66 it is said: "In every case, whether the agreement result in an exchange of land or not, a proper income of the schoolmaster must be provided for, according to the regulation of June 7th, 1821. § 101. This regulation states: "Whenever a regulation of the property of the community and the landlord takes place, so much garden land shall be reserved for the schoolmaster as is necessary for the sustenance of husband, wife, and three children, and fodder for two head of cattle, in return for which the right of pasture on the land of the community shall cease." The general commission at Posen had therefore in all cases, in which the property of landlord and community was arranged, and in which there was not yet any school, though it was intended to establish one in future, reserved the school land, and allowed rent for the benefit of the school-fund till the school could be established. The rents were collected, put on interest, and later used for the building of the school-house, when the teacher had the free use of the land.

y. The provincial diet in Posen thanked the king in an address (February 29th, 1831,) for the progress which the elementary schools of the province had made by normal schools, by the establishment of many new schools, and the improvement of those already established. A petition was added, to improve the salary of the teachers at elementary schools, if it were possible. The king therefore commanded to propose ways and means to obtain funds for the improvement of the condition of all elementary schools, and, having received the proposals of president Flottwell, he allowed, by his cabinet order of January 14th, 1833, an annual sum of 21,000 thalers during the ten years from 1833 to 1842, as a fund for that purpose. He also ordered that 6,000 thalers should be devoted to assist in the building of school-houses, 10,000 thalers for the improvement of the salaries in towns and villages, and 4,900 thalers for the improvement of normal schools and the assistance of the pupils of those schools. The president of the province had the disposal of the two first sums, and the district of Bromberg received of the first, 2,000, of the second, 4,140 thalers, annually. The provincial board of education had the disposal of the third sum, the normal schools belonging to its administrative department. After the lapse of the ten years, the king allowed the payment of the same sum for the year 1843, and later (March 27th, 1844,) for ten additional years till 1853, though with some modifications. For a new organization of the courts had taken place, by which several small towns, in which there were only elementary schools, became the seat of the court for the circle. Therefore arose the necessity to employ in such towns at least one teacher who had been at a university, and to establish one higher class in the school, called rector class, in which the

sons of the members of the court, and of other persons of education, could at least be taught so as to prepare them for the fourth class of a gymnasium. The king had for this purpose allowed, by his order of January 15th, 1841, 7,000 thalers annually for some years, with this special condition, that the money should be used exclusively for the establishment of rector classes and the improvement of schools in the towns in which the courts were in session. The department of Bromberg received annually 2,660 thalers for eight towns of this class. Now this sum was taken into account, when the school-improvement fund was allowed for ten more years, so that the whole sum paid to the province from 1844 to 1853 amounted to 26,000 thalers a year, on the condition that 5,600 thalers should be spent for the assistance in building school-houses, 10,000 thalers for the improvement of salaries in towns and villages, 7,500 thalers for the schools in towns where courts were established, and 3,500 thalers for normal schools and the assistance of their pupils. After the termination of that period, and at the most urgent petitions, the payment of 26,000 thalers per annum was continued for five years more, from 1854 to 1858, and then again for the period of 1859 to 1863, but with this modification, that the sum paid for the rector-classes should be no longer exclusively expended for its benefit, but in general for the improvement of all town-schools in which the pupils of the higher classes were prepared for a gymnasium. At the close of 1863 the payment of the full amount was again allowed for five years more, from 1864 to 1868, but with the remark, that it should be then discontinued, because it would be unjust to the other provinces to favor Posen any longer in this way. But as the organization of public schools has but recently begun in this province, whilst it had been in operation in the older provinces, centuries ago, and as it is not yet equal to the latter, because the progress must be here slower, and has to contend with greater difficulties on account of the different nationalities: it appears to be an urgent necessity that the State should spend more money for this province. There will be more than one hundred schools in the district of Brönberg, even after 1868, which could not exist without the annual assistance from that fund. There are, besides, about two hundred schools which receive regular assistance for the salaries of teachers from provincial and other royal funds, which can not yet be discontinued.

z. The circular note of the minister of state, dated March 6th, 1852, had meanwhile ordered that the scanty salaries of the teachers of elementary schools should be increased. The government of the province therefore induced nearly all communities of the department to do so, which produced an additional expense of 86,073 thalers during the thirteen years from 1852 to 1864, of which not more than 1,500 thalers were paid by the State, the rest by the communities. And yet, the salaries of the teachers of elementary schools are poor, and insufficient even to provide for the necessaries of life. At the end of 1864 it amounted, on an average, to one hundred and fifty thalers for each teacher. According to

the statistical reports of the minister of state, it averaged, in 1861, one hundred and forty-nine thalers; only in one district of the whole monarchy, Coeslin, was it less, viz., one hundred and thirty-nine thalers, whilst the average of the salaries of teachers of elementary schools in the whole monarchy amounted to two hundred and ten thalers.

But the minister has turned over to the government of Bromberg hitherto every year an extraordinary pecuniary assistance for needy and worthy teachers. Though the amount of the assistance was very different in the different years, yet the average was 1,200 thalers, and the government could dispose of it. The Evangelic and Hebrew teachers mostly received two-thirds, the Catholic teachers one-third, not only because the number of the former is so much larger, but also because the government disposed, for the benefit of Catholic teachers, of purely Catholic funds, besides those mentioned, viz., the Gnesen-Znin foundation and the convent-foundation of Haronowo, whilst there is nothing of the kind for the Evangelic confession.

a a. An institution for the support of schoolmasters' widows and orphans for the district of Bromberg was established on the 1st of January, 1828. The State had given a donation of 1,200 thalers as a capital, and every Evangelic or Catholic teacher, whether appointed on probation or definitively, was obliged to be a member. The entering fee amounted to three thalers, and the annual quota two and one-third thalers, to be paid semi-annually. A small sum was annually obtained (besides these contributions and the interest of the capital of 1200 thalers,) by a church collection. The pension of widows, and children under fourteen years, was for the next ten years fixed at twelve thalers a year. But, in the course of years, the fund increased by adding the balance to the capital, so much, that in 1864 it amounted to 67,626 thalers. The pension of widows rose therefore in 1847 to sixteen, in 1851 to eighteen, and in 1864 to twenty-five thalers a year. The pension in every one of the other provinces is less, and though it amounts to only twenty-five pfennigs (about two and a half cents) a day, it compares favorably with the average of all the districts of the monarchy, which amounts to thirteen pfennigs per day.

b b. There exists not yet an institution for emerited teachers. Their pension amounts to one-third of their original income, without regard to the number of years they have served. The salaries being very small, one-third of it is not sufficient to protect them against starvation. The attempts to induce the communities to allow an increase of pension and salary for the emeritus and his successor, are very rarely successful. It was in 1833, when the government formed a small fund for the benefit of emerited teachers of elementary schools by private contributions, and put it out on interest. The government suggested at the same time to the higher authorities the necessity of a regulation for the formation of such funds, which was approved of, but not acted upon, because there was at that time the intention to issue a general regulation for the schools

of the provinces, which was also to settle that point. But the school-regulation of December 11th, 1845, for the province of Prussia, contains nothing else but the statement that the emeritus was to have one-third of the income of his former place, whilst there remained but two-thirds for his successor. Other provinces did not receive a new regulation, and the minister delayed the organization of a fund for the assistance of *emeriti* from year to year, because a school-regulation for the whole monarchy was contemplated, and later on account of the promised law for the regulation of public instruction according to article 26 of the constitution. The minister has, quite recently, drawn up a regulation for the formation of such funds, which is to be brought into the legislature. The fund collected by the government of Bromberg amounted (1864) to three hundred and eighty-eight thalers, put out on interest.

c c. There were in the district of Bromberg, at the end of 1864, 833 public schools, viz., 440 for the Evangelic, 354 for the Catholic, 7 for both confessions, and 32 Hebrew schools; together 962 classes, 972 male and 4 female teachers. Comparing the 833 schools with the 289 which existed in 1815, it will be found that their number is three-fold, and that in that period 544 new schools have been established. There were enrolled 75,491 pupils in those 962 classes; average, 78 children in each class, which number must be considered too large. The number of children of the age to attend school amounted to 79,063, hence 3,572 children did not go to school. This proves that there are not yet enough public schools, particularly for children of the Catholic confession. But the schools of this department were not connected with the church, as it may have been the case in other districts; they were all established by government and the communities, without the coöperation of the church. There have even been new Evangelic parishes organized, and clergymen appointed, where several Evangelic schools had been in operation. It must, however, be mentioned that there were, besides the 833 public schools in 1864, at least 48 licensed private schools, with 72 classes, and 1,680 pupils, which diminishes by so much the number of children without public instruction, before mentioned. A large number of the pupils of private schools are older than the age fixed by law for attendance at school, but on the other hand the pupils of the lower classes of high schools are younger. There are, besides these schools, in the district, one Evangelic normal school in Bromberg, one Catholic normal school in Exin, an educational institute for priests in Gnesen which is altogether under the superintendence of the archiepiscopal general consistory, and has one regent, two professors, one teacher of singing, and twenty boarders.

II. GENERAL HISTORY AFTER THE CREATION OF THE MINISTRY OF INSTRUCTION.

A. Administration of Altenstein.

By cabinet order dated Nov. 3, 1817, a department of educational, medical, and ecclesiastical affairs was created, and Baron von Altenstein*

* Karl, Baron von Altenstein, was born at Anspach, October 7, 1770. His early education was

was placed at its head, with Nicolovius and Süvern, who had been connected with the administration of the section of instruction in the Ministry of the Interior. Large expectations were raised among teachers and educators from this governmental recognition of the great interest of education, and from the high personal and official character of the minister, without reflecting that time is the most important element in the growth and consolidation of a system of national education, and in perfecting the habits of parents, teachers, and local officers, in which the strength of any system abides. Both the king and his minister were too wise and experienced to attempt any large results in the development of schools and education, except under the ripening processes of time, as well as of wise, persistent administration. Many of the ardent educational reformers were somewhat disappointed, because their local and individual schemes of improvement were not immediately adopted by the government, and made obligatory on the whole country. But it can be safely asserted that, aside from cases of local and temporary reaction, in every department of the system, the foundations were consolidated, and institutions and methods were wisely planned in reference to each province, and gradually perfected in all parts of the country.

2. The popular interest in schools and education had been widely and deeply roused since 1808, not only by the endeavors of governmental authorities, but by active and prominent teachers; and although all the provinces could not show the same degree of development, on account of national, historical, confessional, or geographical peculiarities, still every district showed marks of progress. Public education was universally organized; in every one of the eight provinces there was a president whose official activity had been felt in the external organization of the schools, and there were the consistories and other ecclesiastical authorities charged with their internal management. Since 1826, a provincial committee had been clothed with the direction of the high-schools and the normal schools, and the immediate direction of the city, town, and communal schools was left with the municipal authority. Each provincial committee had one counselor for the higher branches of instruction, and several counselors intimately acquainted with the elementary schools; and in these high positions were wise, experienced, and practical men. A school-law was framed for the entire monarchy, embodying, as far as possible, the practice of the more advanced provinces, but it did not receive the formal sanction of the king, still leaving the provincial administration to be directed by special regulations from the ministry.

under the immediate care of his widowed mother, assisted by teachers from the gymnasium of his native place, and was carried forward at the Universities of Erlangen and Göttingen, with special reference to a public career. He was early placed in the civil service, and rose, by promotion in consequence of diligent and satisfactory work, until he was invited to Berlin by Hardenberg, to a position in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and in 1807 was placed by the king at the head of the department of Finance. In 1813 he was made president of the province of Silesia, and in 1815 was at the head of the commission charged with recovering the treasures of art, which Napoleon had removed from Prussia to Paris. He died, May 14, 1840.

And in the meantime the number of teachers and establishments of all kinds grew from year to year, as was never before known.

3. Von Altenstein's culture, (says Harnish, who had served a long time under him,) his love for science and art, made him peculiarly fit for the direction of this ministry; but he was no rigorous director, and was inclined to reach his results by a "wise delay." Eilers, in his critical examination of the ministry of Eichhorn, remarks that "Altenstein was a statesman in the noblest conception of the word, full of an intelligent love for the advance of science; yet the culture of the period in which he lived, and of his class, did not allow him to feel at home in the management of ecclesiastical affairs, in which branch of his office he could not heartily coöperate with the king, who desired to lead the people back to a biblical Christianity, and to reconstruct and consolidate the relations of the Church to the State. Altenstein, satisfied that a blind Christian faith had lost its hold on the scientific and intellectual world, and had its roots only in the hearts of the masses of the people, hoped to find in Hegel a man who would reconcile these two portions of society, the scientific and the popular. In a letter to Plamann, the first genuine Pestalozzian of the day, the minister encouraged him to continue his praiseworthy efforts; and in a circular, dated March 22, 1822, remarks: "his majesty the king is most graciously pleased to say, in an order to the schools in a certain district, that he acknowledges the active efforts shown in favor of elementary schools, and he would also have this interest kept in proper bounds, so that the common people might not form crude scientific notions inimical to their practical work in life." Von Altenstein himself favored an education of the people more independent of the Church. He did not hold that teachers of elementary schools must necessarily be men of positive religious training, although such training would enhance other good qualities and attainments.

4. At the head of the Elementary Bureau was Beckedorf, who devoted himself almost exclusively to the administration of these schools and of the normal schools. The latter he visited frequently to watch their progress and confer with their directors; and he labored to bring them into closer connection with the public schools in the several districts, both by procuring for them competent directors and teachers, and an allowance for their traveling expenses, when in attendance on the monthly or other conferences. His administration may be regarded as the golden age of activity in the Prussian normal schools.

5. Beckedorf published a periodical, from 1825 to 1827, entitled "The Annals of Prussian Public Schools," which excited much interest among the friends of elementary schools, though its continuance was brief. He was superseded, on his becoming a Catholic, by Dreist, in 1827, who had served as an assistant, and who had been a pupil of Pestalozzi, and a teacher in the Bunzlau Normal School. Dreist was transferred to Stettin, where he soon died, and was succeeded by Kortüm, who had been a director of the Dusseldorf Gymnasium.

6. In the opinion of Harnisch, after the death of Dreist, a great coolness in regard to public schools became evident in the ministry, and the opinion was louder and louder expressed, that it was a mistake to attempt to give to the whole people any great intellectual culture, and that it would be wise to return to the practice of giving only reading, writing, arithmetic, and the catechism, in the public schools. This view, without being directly adopted by Kortüm, was countenanced by his satisfaction in the development of the rudimentary studies.

7. While there was less activity displayed by the central administration, there was increased activity in the local authorities. The number of schools and teachers was increased, old school-houses were repaired and new ones built, and the material aids of instruction provided; and at the close of this period (1840,) there were in operation six universities, one hundred and twenty gymnasia, a large number of special high-schools of different kinds, thirty-eight normal schools, and thirty thousand public elementary schools, and every sixth person in Prussia was in school; and in different sections of the country there was a wide range of methods tolerated, such as those of Dinter and Zerrenner in the provinces of Prussia and Saxony, and of Diesterweg in Berlin, and of Harnisch in Weissenfels. The development of the Prussian School System at this period, attracted the attention and drew forth the admiration and encomiums of Cousin, who recommended its main features for adoption into the new system of elementary instruction for France; and Thiersh, in almost the same unqualified manner, recommended it for the organization of secondary schools in Bavaria, although the minister himself felt that there was need of improvement in the organization and administration of the system, and especially in the normal schools. Von Altenstein died in May, 1840, and was succeeded by J. A. F. Eichhorn.*

B. Ministry of Eichhorn.

1. Dr. Eichhorn brought to the administration of public instruction a high reputation as an accomplished statesman, ardently devoted to the interests of Prussia and Germany, the author and first administrator of the "German Customs Union," and had filled, since 1831, the position of director in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. He sympathized with king William IV, in his policy of restriction as to the aim and scope of the elementary public school, as well as in his opposition to the Hegelian philosophy, which, up to this time, had been almost supreme in the higher schools of Prussia. He was a friend and admirer of the theological views of Schleiermacher.

2. He was assisted in the elementary bureau by Dr. Eilers, who had been gymnasium director at Kreusnach, and school-counselor at Coblenz.

* Dr. Eichhorn was born, March 2, 1779, in Wertheim—educated at Gottingen—entered the civil service in 1800—quartermaster in military service from 1801 to 1806—assessor at Berlin in 1806—volunteer in the army in 1813—provincial counselor in the provinces recovered from France in 1815—counselor of State in 1817—director in the ministry of foreign affairs in 1831, and from 1840 to 1848 minister of public instruction.

Both the minister and his chief subordinate favored the substitution of some of the æsthetic as well as practical learning, in place of the strictly formal culture of the intellect. The following decree, dated Nov. 5th, 1842, expresses their ideal:

Decree of the royal ministry of ecclesiastic and educational affairs in Berlin.

It has been occasionally suggested, that the state should influence the lower classes of the rural population to devote themselves to gardening, particularly to the raising of vegetables, fruits and flowers, and that by doing so, not only economical, but also moral advantages would be attained. The remark has been made, that it would be a great progress in the civilization of the common peasant, if he would raise in his little garden not only the quantity of potatoes necessary for his nourishment, but also a better class of vegetables; if he would plant and graft fruit-trees, which will produce fruit before years have passed by; or lastly, if he would raise and cultivate flowers, which will give him pleasure by their beauty and fragrance. It has also been stated that this would mark the beginning of an important period of his intellectual and moral development, viz., the transition from a life of the mere gratification of his sensual necessities to one of a nobler sensibility for more dignified enjoyments, and at the same time the beginning of a wider, more unselfish, and moral activity. The poor peasant, small farmer, and the day laborer, would, it is said, when he returns in the evening from his hard work in the field, no longer throw himself sulkily and sleepy on a bench, or run to the bar-room, but would find his recreation in a walk through his garden, in examining the vegetables and young trees, in watering and tending the flowers, or see whether wife and children have done their duties during the day; there would in that way be laid the foundation of a more moral existence and of a happier family life. The correctness of these remarks can not be denied. The village schoolmasters are the organs by which such improvements could be realized, and the normal schools are the means by which they could be made fit for acting in this direction. The normal schools offer the opportunity to impart to the pupils the proper knowledge of gardening, yet it is necessary to ascertain whether there is every where sufficient opportunity to practice it, and particularly whether the object of that branch of instruction is made sufficiently clear to them, whether they are taught that it is an essential duty of their office to employ not only their knowledge in other branches, but also of gardening, not merely for the improvement of their personal condition, but for the purpose of being the advisers of and examples to the people in every respect. I hereby instruct the provincial boards of education to call the attention of the directors of normal schools to this point, and to make it their duty, as much as circumstances will permit, to arrange matters so that the pupils of the normal schools shall not only attain knowledge of the cultivation of gardens, but that they learn it practically, and that they shall be taught how important the objects are which the peasants can derive from it. The royal provincial board of education will direct their attention to this subject during their visitations, and cause the directors to state in their annual reports what had been done in the normal schools of their districts to accomplish it.

(Signed,)

EICHHORN.

3. The dissolution of the normal school at Breslau, Feb. 29, 1846, although ostensibly justified by the state of immorality and insubordination which had grown up out of the inadequate accommodations of the school, compelling the residence of the older pupils in the town, (thereby subjecting them to the temptations of a large city,) caused great dissatisfaction among the teachers and schoolmen of the country.

4. The dismissal, or rather the compulsory resignation of Diesterweg from the directorship of the normal school at Berlin, added to the dissatisfaction which existed towards the ministry, especially as it was avowedly done for the purpose of rebuking the feeling of professional inde-

pendence which had sprung up among the teachers who had been trained at the normal schools. Diesterweg had acquired great influence among the teachers by asserting the claims of the public schools to a broad and liberal culture, and by inspiring teachers with a self and professional respect. These two acts aroused a great degree of jealousy and dissatisfaction towards the ministry; but the revolution of 1848 swallowed up both the minister and his counselor, and the special questions which they had inaugurated.

C. The More Recent Period.

1. To supplement Eilers' want of practical knowledge of the normal schools and of the elementary schools of the country, Frederick Stiehl was made assistant counselor, who had commenced his career as a teacher of the normal school at Neuweid, under the directorship of the Pestalozzian, Braun. He had become somewhat disgusted with the dull monotony of the Pestalozzian method, as too often followed, and had labored to introduce a more fruitful and historical method, such as had been pursued by Hoffman at Brunlow, by Harnisch at Weissenfels, and Steir and Schulz at Potsdam; and he had in a special manner signalized his method by infusing a warmer Evangelic religious teaching, as well as by giving a better organization to the classes and studies of the common schools. In the instructions which emanated under his inspiration in the department, the aim was to give unity and harmony to the organization, and to place all the methods on a religious, patriotic, and historical basis. The common schools of every part of the kingdom acquired a well defined aim, the instruction being limited, first, to the German language as a vernacular, and to a thorough knowledge of Prussian geography and history, and to the doctrinal points of the Evangelical religion; and second, to secure teachers for the whole country, by a training which should fit them to accomplish this work.

2. The administrative means which Stiehl employed to accomplish these results, were the three so-called Prussian regulations. The first, dated Oct. 1, 1854, issued by minister Von Raumer, referred to instruction in the normal schools; the second, dated Oct. 2d, to elementary education, and the third dated Oct. 3d, to the principles on which the organization and instruction in elementary schools of but one class, should rest. They were issued under the title of *The Three Prussian Regulations of the 1st, 2d and 3d of Oct., 1854.* Their publication was followed by an animated discussion, both in the public press and in the House of Representatives. As the substance of the regulations will appear in the notice which follows of the discussions which their publication excited, we will not present them in detail here.

The debate in the House originated on the so-called Dortmund petition, addressed to the House by one hundred and sixteen members of the Dortmund Circle, praying that the said regulations should not be put in force, and that the promised general school law should be introduced.

This petition was referred to the Committee on Education, who reported through von Bethmann Hollweg, minister of public instruction, (1854-59,) pronouncing the principles of the regulations correct, but that the details required alteration and completeness. In consequence of this report, the regulations were not disturbed, but some slight modifications in their administration were made in the Rhenish provinces and Westphalia, at the request of the Synod.

8. Two more petitions against the regulations in 1859, caused a lively debate in the House, followed by the adoption of a resolution to send them to the government, with a recommendation, that the complaints against the regulations, on account of their overburdening the elementary schools with memorizing religious matter, be taken into consideration.

The Committee on Education, on the part of the House, examined and approved the regulations, as did also the government, in its explanation of its position with regard to them, both claiming that: first, the repeal of the regulations would be equivalent to an abandonment of the principles set forth in them, and on which they rested; second, that the complaints, if well founded, should be directed, not against the regulations themselves, but against the erroneous interpretation of them by the teachers; and third, that the regulations were not in the nature of a mechanism, within which the development of the individual should be managed, but that they announced the principles on which the healthy education of the people should be founded and developed, and their misapprehension guarded against by proper governmental instructions. To carry out the last suggestion, the minister of public instruction, von Bethmann Hollweg, a disciple of Charles Ritter, issued the memorable circular note of Nov. 9, 1859. In this circular he declares that he had done all that he could to obtain a correct and intimate knowledge of the real condition of the affairs, and that he was now ready to communicate the results of his investigations, since he had been able personally to examine those normal schools (Coepenick, Bunzlau, and Münsterberg,) and elementary schools which are perfectly organized according to the regulations, and managed according to them for some time." The minister first reviews the instruction in religion, and approves of that which the authorities had done, but adds: "care should be taken that the abundant material selected from Scripture and committed to memory will not be a dead weight to their understanding and individual assimilation, both of which, in their mutual relation, must be the main object kept in view by every educated Evangelic Christian, and by the teacher of the young." The minister then praises the progress made in the schools in which the pupils receive the training preliminary to their entering a normal school, speaks of the progress further to be expected, and of the advantages which the normal schools would derive from it, and expresses soothingly and in a compromising manner the expectation that government will interfere in all cases when an overburdening of memory would impair the

development of intellect and the unfettered play of all the faculties ; that government will instruct the teachers that in elementary schools the understanding of the Sunday epistles should be sufficient, without committing them to memory. The number of hymns to be learned should not be greater than forty, and the schools should not be compelled to cause the children to commit more than one hundred and thirty selections from Scripture to memory.

The minister had so far, to a certain degree, satisfied the complaints stated in the petitions, and then he desires both teachers and inspectors to keep in view the principle, expressed in the regulations, that it should be the main task of the teacher "to explain the essence of the objects taught, to bring them to a clear understanding, and make them a real property of the children." He enters then more fully into the treatment of Bible history, and forbids its being committed to memory in elementary and normal schools, as had been certainly the custom in many of them. The minister adds, "that there must be necessarily a period of transition, in all provinces of intellectual development, during which imperfections can not be avoided, but that evident errors should be corrected and defects be mended as much as possible." He offers practical advice, how on the one hand the teachers might avoid errors, and on the other hand how the future scholars of normal schools could be made to completely master at least the material of Bible history. "Too much detail of Bible history is to be avoided in normal schools, and its treatment should have in view a Christian education of the people rather than theological science, and care should be taken that the whole Bible history be explained and the didactic instruction given within the time fixed for it."

The minister was of the opinion that he had guarded against the overburdening of the memory in elementary schools, and decidedly expresses the expectation that particular attention would be paid in all Evangelic elementary schools, that the indispensable religious subjects be committed to memory to a reasonable degree, and that the erroneous direction would be guarded against which pretends to awaken the mind of the people in religious education without its positive doctrines. The minister turns then to the attacks on the regulations which state that in the schools organized on the principles of those regulations, the instruction of knowledge, indispensable in practical life, were utterly neglected, and concedes that the classes of the people who wholly rely on the instruction in elementary schools should receive there a thorough mental training, and should be so educated as to become intelligent and able members of society ; that he had therefore considered it his duty personally to investigate this matter, how the normal schools applied themselves to this task, according to the prescripts of the regulations. He states what he had found the instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic and drawing to be, and explains the unsatisfactory results of the instruction in arithmetic by its being given by novices, who had not yet been trained

according to the prescripts of the regulations and by the particular difficulties which the normal schools have to contend with, partly because of the pupils having been admitted without a proper preliminary training in arithmetic, partly because of the difficulty they had to overcome in the instruction in geometry. Considering the importance of this branch of instruction, supposing that it be taught in a proper manner, for the formal education of the teacher, and its necessity in practical life, the minister gives instructions, additional to those of the regulation of October 1st. Firstly, there shall be two lessons instead of one every week in arithmetic and geometry in the upper division of normal schools; secondly, the instruction in computation of proportions, of decimals, of involution, shall no longer be exceptionally permitted by the authorities of the province, but shall henceforth be required in the normal schools, but the school committees of the provinces may dispense such normal schools of this obligation who, against all reasonable expectations, should be unable to satisfy the claims on a necessary elementary education. He thinks that natural philosophy, botany and zoölogy are not necessary parts of the education of elementary teachers, but that a knowledge of these branches would make the teacher capable of explaining more satisfactorily the corresponding chapters of the Reader for elementary schools, of giving practical advice to the people in case of necessity, and of giving instruction in the adult industrial schools (*fortbildungs schulen*.) He then recommends the school committees to consider if it would be practicable to teach more than hitherto of the rudiments of chemistry in the normal schools, particularly in its bearings upon agriculture, perhaps in connection with the instruction in gardening and the raising of fruit trees." The minister expresses his entire satisfaction at the results of the instruction in the German language in the normal schools, and indicates that the principal object of this branch of instruction should be, to consider it in its popular, in its ethical and æsthetical character. He recommends instruction in singing, both for church service and popular songs and also gymnastic exercises, already practiced at all normal schools, and promises arrangements which would render gymnastics more effective. The minister is satisfied with the instruction in history and geography of the country, and he thinks it perfectly evident that the Reader, when intelligently used, furnishes all the proper assistance needed for the instruction of the different objects in elementary schools. Though, therefore, the regulation of October 3d, 1854, needed no change with regard to the prescribed method of instruction, yet the minister orders, to avoid misunderstandings, that in those schools for which the regulations prescribe thirty hours of instruction every week, three of them should invariably be used for instruction in geography and history of the country, and for natural science. Where circumstances should render this impossible, there should be a well planned method prescribed for the teacher in the use of the text-book, and the school examination should be so directed as to show distinctly if the knowledge which the

children have acquired in these branches, is in extent and intelligent understanding equal to that which might be justly claimed. The minister feels himself justified, from the observations he had made regarding the method of instruction in these branches at the normal schools, to express the caution that the teaching of physical geography should not mislead the teachers to neglect the political, technological, and agricultural part.

4. In 1860, in the House of Representatives, again a very detailed discussion took place on the three regulations and petitions relating to them. Of these, six hundred and thirty-two were in favor of the regulations, because, 1, they laid down God's word and the catechism as the foundation and centre of public instruction and Christian education ; 2, they allowed sufficient importance to the necessary and useful knowledge in connection with what the practical life required ; 3, they regulated the method, the form of instruction, so as to awaken a vigorous intellectual activity, and as to render all the objects of instruction means of educating mind and of forming the character ; 4, they were no new principle in the public schools, but a concentration of all approved principles of education and instruction in well defined boundaries and according to a correct method. There were also forty-four petitions against the regulations, the result of certain influences from towns such as Berlin, Potsdam, Breslau, Naumburg, Gumbinnen, Bochum, Schoenebeck, &c., demanding the speedy publication of the general school law as a final settlement. These petitions contained, 1, the assertion of the unconstitutionality of the regulations ; 2, the complaints against the third regulation : *a*, in the instruction in religion the quantity of matter to be learned by heart is so large, that a clear understanding must be impossible and the love for the religion suppressed ; *b*, the instruction in other objects is so much restricted, that it is not in harmony with the civilization of the people, and insufficient for practical life ; 3, complaints against the first and second regulations concerning the scholars at the normal schools and the preparatory institutions. The committee made these complaints subject to a thorough examination, and finally resolved to recommend to the House to send all the petitions to the minister of state, and to declare, 1, that the issue of the regulations could not be considered unconstitutional, and therefore the prayer of the petitioners should be refused ; 2, that the diminution of the quantity of religious matter to be learned by heart should be recommended to the consideration of the minister ; 3, that the school-law, promised in Art. 26 of the Constitution, and at the same time the decision about a desirable increase of the subjects of study in the normal school, and greater claims on the preparatory institutes would be expected, if possible, during the next session. The minister von Bethmann Hollweg declared that he was happy to be able to recommend the favorable vote on this report on the 21th, excepting a few alterations in the third article.

5. The minister desired, on the 3d of September, 1860, in consequence of those resolutions, all the provincial governments and school-commis-

sions to report on the necessity and possibility of the greater development of the schools organized in harmony with the regulations, and he distinctly declared that the detail of the regulations should not be considered as something definitively settled or complete. The minister desired, further, a circumstantial report on the different points contained in the resolutions of the House, recommending for their consideration certain points of view.

6. When the minister had received these reports, he had a memorial prepared on the question recommended to his consideration, on the diminution of the quantity of religious matter to be learned by heart in the elementary and preparatory schools; this memorial is an important contribution to the history of the inner development of the elementary and normal schools, and allows an instructive insight into the hard and effective work of school administration in the light of the regulations, and into a contest of principles whose origin and bearing reaches far beyond the proper province of the school. This memorial can be found in full in the "*Centralblatt*," 1861, p. 143 to 179, and a report on it in the "*Berliner Blätter for school and education*," 1861, No. 24, sq. The memorial contains, firstly, the decree of the 3d September, 1860; then circumstantial communications which are considered necessary for the understanding of the remarks and suggestions made by the provincial administrations in their reports, particularly concerning the construction of the task imposed upon them by the regulations in their general and in their pedagogic and didactic bearings. Then follow extracts from the reports, according to which the reorganization of the schools should be complete in 1860, six years after the publication of the regulations. Then follow remarks on the opinion that there were too much memory work in the religious instruction, and then the results arrived at, that, 1, the quantity of religious matter to be learned by heart in elementary schools must be considered as too great; 2, that the preparatory schools, as desired by the regulations, were sufficient and proper, even if the normal schools should be required to extend their field of studies. There is, lastly, an answer given to the question whether a diminution of the quantity of religious matter to be learned by heart in the preparatory schools could be considered necessary, respectively how this could be done and demonstrated, 1, that there were no reasons to do so in order to obtain an opportunity for other, more extended studies; 2, that other considerations would lead to the result that such a diminution might be desirable as a compensation for diminished labor in other directions. The religious education in preparatory schools should aim to treat the matter to be learned by heart in a manner which would exclude a simply mechanical memory work, &c.

The minister sent this memorial to the different provincial administrations on the 16th of February, 1861, and shows that and why it would not be in agreement with the education of the young in elementary schools when the prescribed memory work should be excluded; that it

could not prevent the schools from attending to the other objects of instruction; that, on the contrary, it would facilitate this labor, provided it be properly managed, and that at all events the retentive power of memory would be directed to a worthy, inspiring and spiritual necessity of the people. It would also be seen, remarks the minister, in what directions the regulation of the 3d October, 1854, had been unsatisfactorily and erroneously executed, and gives the necessary instructions. The minister selects for the preparatory schools, twelve psalms, (viz., 1, 8, 19, 23, 32, 46, 51, 84, 90, 108, 121, 189,) and directs that such religious matter should be learned by heart, which had been prescribed by the administration of the province for the elementary school of one class. The time gained by this diminution is to be employed for the other objects. Then follow instructions concerning preparatory schools.

7. This completes the development of the regulations as far as the minister thought it desirable and practical, considering the circumstances. (See "the development of the three Prussian regulations," with a preface by F. Stiehl, 1861, p. 60.) The publisher of that pamphlet is of opinion that the circular notes of the minister and the memorial are essentially a completion of the three regulations.

The history of the parliamentary discussions on the regulations terminates at this point, and the principles advanced and maintained by them have had time to assimilate themselves with the life of the Evangelic school-children, through the normal schools and elementary schools. But a suspension of the development of the public schools on the part of the administration, even of the great eagerness to publish books for teachers and pupils of Evangelic schools, based on the instructions of the regulations, has taken place since. The literary activity in the practical service of government reposes.

8. When Stiehl had determined the objects of the education of intellect and heart, he took the most circumspect and effective measures to make gymnastics, (which suffered every where from want of principle, had a miserable existence or had degenerated,) an object of instruction in connection with the other branches of education, so that it might be taught even in the simplest public school; the heart, swelling with patriotism, should pulsate in a healthy body, and the young man be capable of defending his country at her call. Not a little has been done also on this field, with very scanty means.

Stiehl was perfectly aware of the importance of the education of girls in public schools, and he therefore made needle-work one of the obligatory branches of instruction in girls' schools. So-called men of progressive liberty had some strange objections, seeing in this obligation an encroachment on the liberty of the individual, who may prefer to walk about in an unmended shirt, instead of being instructed and compelled by the school of the State to mend it. According to such opinions it would not be permitted to assist the people by the school to rely on their own resources. Much attention has been paid to drawing in public

The common school in Prussia, in spite of many delays and fluctuations, the result of difficult times and more difficult men, has, in my opinion, never borne more distinctly the character of a public popular school, never been more a Prussian school, i. e. more nearly approaching the realization of a national school, than the one now in active operation. There is not only an immense, well regulated, and appropriate apparatus for administration and execution, but it is also now well known, (unless a person is determined not to be guided to culture by competent leaders,) in what the education of the nation consists, namely, not in separate, formal education, but in the religious, historical, and practical wisdom of our fathers; externally in the carefully nursed military spirit of the boys, and in dexterity in useful handiwork of the girls.

It would be difficult for a Protestant* to express what, during this important and interesting period of the Evangelic schools in Prussia, has occurred in the public schools of the Catholic confession, had not the Catholic counselor Kellner in Trier published his "*Volksschulkunde*" in 1855, (six months after the publication of the Evangelic counselor Bormann,) and enlightened us, though not officially. He says in the preface: "Our system of instruction and education offers the great advantage, that it rests on a safe and firm foundation, which prevents its being swept away by the torrents of time, but does not prevent us from examining what that current carries toward us, and from accepting it without prejudice, when it is found to be good. May this book also bear modest witness to it." "When this book had been almost finished," writes Dr. Keller, "the three Prussian regulations of the 1st, 2d, and 3d October fell into my hands. Though only designed for Evangelic schools, yet they must be acknowledged by a Catholic as important publications, which deserve serious consideration. While the Catholic school is protected from some Protestant aberrations and errors by being firmly attached to the rock of the Church; the regulations aim to correct such errors with earnestness and practical knowledge."

I have not seen any thing of a peculiar, essential development in the Catholic schools of Prussia, "firmly attached to the rock of the church," even since the first publication and the successive editions of said "*Volksschulkunde*." They not only enjoy the full protection of the State laws, but also of the Evangelic State authorities, besides the care of their own bishops. I can not mention either methods, or objects, or arrangements in the Evangelic schools, which have been taken from the practice of Catholic schools, and it would not be difficult to prove to him who is unacquainted with the subject, that since Felbiger's times the reverse has taken place with regard to Catholic schools and Catholic authors.

The following Tables will show to those who know how to read statistics, the vigor and extent of the Prussian school system:

* The author of this article is Dr. Thilo, Director of the evangelical Seminary at Berlin.

III. STATISTICS OF THE PRUSSIAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

A. *Early Statistical Report of all Public Schools (except High-schools, &c.)*

The royal ministry directed in April, 1819, that all the provincial governments should make returns, from which could be seen the number of all schools in towns and villages, and the salaries of all the teachers employed. The following summary is compiled from these returns:

I. NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN 1819.

I. TOWN SCHOOLS				II. VILLAGE SCHOOLS			
In the province of	Evang.	Cath.	Total.	In the province of	Evang.	Cath.	Total.
a. Prussia,	255	40	304	a. Prussia,	2,635	524	3,159
b. Posen,	106	107	213	b. Posen,	455	309	764
c. Brandenburg, } Berlin,	101	1	102	c. Brandenburg,	2,517	11	2,528
} province,	298	3	301	d. Pomerania,	2,021	—	2,021
d. Pomerania,	144	1	145	e. Rhine-land,	1,671	1,133	2,804
e. Rhine-land,	150	145	295	f. Saxony,	2,179	124	2,304
f. Saxony,	367	94	461	g. Westphalia,	622	801	1,423
g. Westphalia,	12	166	178	h. Rhenish provinces,	71	1,912	2,683
h. Rhenish provinces,	12	270	282				
Total,	1,681	768	2,449	Total,	2,861	4,114	7,023

II. TEACHERS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN 1819.

I. TEACHERS OF TOWN SCHOOLS.				II. TEACHERS OF VILLAGE SCHOOLS.					
No.	Salary per year.	Evang.	Cath. Total.	No.	Salary per year.	Evang.	Cath. Total.		
1.	Less than 50 thalers,	68	34	102	1.	Less than 10 thalers,	263	60	323
2.	Between 50 and 100,	298	153	451	2.	Between 10 and 20,	641	216	857
3.	" 100 " 150,	447	235	742	3.	" 20 " 40,	1,652	435	2,087
4.	" 150 " 200,	306	186	694	4.	" 40 " 60,	2,002	524	2,526
5.	" 200 " 250,	443	113	556	5.	" 60 " 80,	2,110	541	2,651
6.	" 250 " 300,	244	48	299	6.	" 80 " 100,	1,707	1,028	2,735
7.	" 300 " 350,	237	94	361	7.	" 100 " 120,	1,652	740	2,392
8.	" 350 " 400,	139	19	158	8.	" 120 " 150,	669	282	951
9.	" 400 " 450,	108	6	114	9.	" 150 " 180,	714	292	1,006
10.	" 450 " 500,	50	9	59	10.	" 180 " 200,	333	81	414
11.	" 500 " 550,	35	9	37	11.	" 200 " 250,	289	47	336
12.	" 550 " 600,	102	2	104	12.	" 250 " 300,	222	31	253
13.	" 600 " 650,	7	—	7	13.	" 300 " 350,	221	23	244
14.	" 650 " 700,	3	—	3	14.	" 350 " 400,	124	5	129
15.	" 700 " 1,200,	3	—	3	15.	" 400 " 450,	82	—	82
					16.	" 450 " 450,	12	—	12
					17.	" 450 " 500,	6	—	6
	Total,	2,790	955	3,745		Total,	13,015	5,125	18,140
	Paid by government,			800		Paid by government,			6,651
	" patronage,			2,945		" patronage,			11,489

The total expenses of all town-schools amounted to 796,321 thalers, of which the government paid 60,320 thalers, in money, wood, &c. The average income of a teacher, 512 l. 10 thalers.

The total expenses for teachers of village schools amounted to 1,556,339 th., of which government paid 78,144 th., in money, wood, &c. The average income of a teacher, 85 thalers.

B. *Recent Statistical Report.*

The following statistical notes are based on the latest publications, ("*Centralblatt*," 1864, August number.) These official publications refer to the period from 1859 to 1861, and therefore show reliably what the elementary schools in Prussia now are. The table represents all elementary schools, citizen schools, girls' schools, and other middle schools. All higher schools are omitted which have the privilege of issuing certificates to those who have passed the examination on leaving the school.

All the institutes, counted in the table, are either public or private

schools. All schools which must be supported either by the communities or school-associations, are counted among the public schools; private schools are those for whose support such a legal obligation does not exist. The public schools are subdivided into Evangelic, Catholic, and Hebrew schools. The instruction in religion of the minority at schools composed of children of both confessions, is a charge to the community, when such minority is sufficiently large; if small, to the nearest relatives. There are no public elementary schools of dissenters.

The word "classes" means such schools as have a separate teacher for each division of the school.

In the number of male and female teachers of public elementary schools, those only are counted who are teaching, whether appointed definitively or not. Male teachers appointed as substitutes or for particular objects only, and female teachers for needle-work, are not counted.

III. PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1860-61.

(The letter A signifies towns, B villages, C total sum.)

PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1861.												
		EVANGELIC.			CATHOLIC.			HEBREW.				
		Num.	Classes.	Teachers.	Num.	Classes.	Teachers.	Num.	Classes.	Teachers.		
				Male. Fem.			Male. Fem.			Male. Fem.		
I. Prussia.	A	200	857	798	77	80	204	100	47	8	13	13
	B	3,323	3,029	2,613	5	124	904	903	3	—	—	—
	C	3,523	4,486	4,411	82	1,004	1,108	1,003	50	8	13	13
II. Posen.	A	150	353	340	9	14	300	298	1	78	137	130
	B	723	733	732	—	1,057	1,049	1,078	—	—	—	—
	C	873	1,086	1,072	9	1,171	1,349	1,376	1	78	137	130
III. Bran- denburg.	A	377	1,446	1,723	64	24	60	34	21	6	22	33
	B	2,596	3,348	2,922	3	9	12	11	—	—	—	—
	C	2,973	5,134	4,544	67	33	72	45	21	6	22	33
IV. Pomerania.	A	154	918	892	70	4	5	5	—	6	12	11
	B	2,381	2,559	2,496	32	15	18	15	—	—	—	—
	C	2,535	3,477	3,378	111	19	23	20	—	6	12	11
V. Silesia.	A	901	704	720	7	163	550	515	49	2	8	11
	B	2,012	2,649	2,197	27	1,494	2,204	2,116	—	—	—	—
	C	2,913	3,443	2,916	34	1,657	2,754	2,631	49	2	8	11
VI. Saxony.	A	304	1,546	1,484	37	98	62	50	16	2	2	2
	B	2,215	2,716	2,603	—	150	155	155	1	1	1	1
	C	2,519	4,262	4,087	37	178	217	205	17	3	3	3
VII. Rhine, & provinces.	A	965	624	601	20	377	1,138	730	439	—	21	21
	B	744	896	876	2	2,479	3,367	2,977	349	11	11	11
	C	1,709	1,510	1,477	22	2,856	4,505	3,707	817	30	32	32
VIII. West phalia.	A	117	371	394	33	145	360	213	161	6	8	6
	B	670	1,019	780	16	287	1,004	869	212	—	—	—
	C	787	1,390	1,174	49	1,032	1,463	1,082	373	6	8	6
IX. Hesse coelect.	A	—	—	—	—	7	19	19	—	2	2	2
	B	—	—	—	—	112	130	130	—	—	—	—
	C	—	—	—	—	119	149	149	—	2	2	2
Sum total.	A	1,441	7,340	6,406	345	905	2,716	2,034	716	129	225	215
	B	14,099	17,439	16,127	60	7,117	9,042	8,323	603	12	12	12
	C	15,540	24,779	22,533	405	8,022	11,758	10,357	1,321	141	237	227

According to this table, there were, in all, at the close of 1861:

- I. Public elementary schools in towns, 2,935, with 10,200 classes, 9,135 male, & 1,064 fem. teachers.
 II. " " " villages, 21,828, " 20,403 " 24,403 " 691 " "
 III. Total, 24,763 30,783 33,817 1,735

35,372

Observation 1. The number of teachers (35,372) is less than the number of classes (36,783) by 1,411. The reasons, as given in the official papers, are: *a*, There were a number of places of teachers vacant at the time of the census; *b*, substitutes are not counted; *c*, one teacher was, in certain localities, permitted to teach in two schools or in two classes in neighboring villages; *d*, there were some schools of several classes, in which there was not a teacher for every class, when it appeared sufficient to engage assistant teachers for some branches.

Observation 2. The Evangelic schools amount to about two-thirds of the sum total of schools (16,540, of 24,763;) the Catholic schools to less than one-third (8,082, of 24,763;) the Hebrew schools to about 1-117, (141, of 24,763.)

Observation 3. The number of public elementary schools in villages is seven times as large as that of towns, though the rural population (12,865,368) is about double the town population (5,611,132.) Yet it should be remembered that, *a*, there are not counted the higher schools, whose preparatory classes accommodate a considerable number of children of the age to attend school; *b*, nor are the private schools counted, which are mostly in towns (1,124, of 1,434;) *c*, that the elementary schools in towns have on an average three to four classes, (10,290 classes to 2,935 schools,) whilst the larger number of village schools have but one class, (26,493 classes to 21,828 schools.)

Observation 4. Arranging the provinces according to the sum total of public elementary schools, we shall find:

A. Sum total of Schools.	B. Evangelic Schools.	C. Catholic Schools.	D. Hebrew Schools.
I. Prussia, 4,603	I. Prussia, 3,597	I. Rhenish provinces, . 2,856	I. Posen, 78
II. Rhenish provinces, . 3,895	II. Brandenburg, 2,943	II. Silesia, 1,637	II. Rhenish provinces, 30
III. Silesia, 3,872	III. Saxony, 2,603	III. Posen, 1,197	III. Prussia, 8
IV. Brandenburg, 2,979	IV. Pomerania, . 2,515	IV. Westphalia, . 1,032	IV. Brandenburg, .. 6
V. Saxony, 2,784	V. Silesia, 2,213	V. Prussia, 1,004	V. Pomerania, 6
VI. Pomerania, . 2,540	VI. Rhenish provinces, . 1,003	VI. Saxony, 176	VI. Westphalia, ... 6
VII. Posen, 2,148	VII. Posen, 873	VII. Hohenzollern, 109	VII. Saxony, 3
VIII. Westphalia, 1,823	VIII. Westphalia, . 767	VIII. Brandenburg, 30	VIII. Silesia, 2
IX. Hohenzollern, 111	IX. Hohenzollern, —	IX. Pomerania, . 1	IX. Hohenzollern, . 2
Sum, 24,763 16,540 8,082 141
		24,763	

IV. Licensed private schools in 1861.

I. Prussia,	235 schools, with 400 classes.
II. Posen,	112 " ... " 210 "
III. Brandenburg,	
<i>a.</i> Berlin,	108 " ... " 626 "
<i>b.</i> Province,	88 " ... " 150 "
IV. Pomerania,	173 " ... " 261 "
V. Silesia,	183 " ... " 400 "
VI. Saxony,	63 " ... " 103 "
VII. Rhenish provinces, 275...	" ... " 540 "
VIII. Hohenzollern,	2 " ... " 2 "
IX. Westphalia,	195 " ... " 252 "

In all, 1,434 schools, with 2,944 classes.

The total average is two classes to each private school. The ratio is different in Berlin, where there are about six classes to each school. The private schools in Berlin had increased in 1865 to 118, viz. :—

1. 8 higher boys' schools, with 6 to 10 classes.
2. 17 middle " " " 4 " 12 "
3. 19 elementary " " " 1 " 8 "
4. 34 higher girls' schools, with 2 " 12 classes.
5. 22 middle " " " 3 " 8 "
6. 18 elementary " " " 2 " 7 "

Of the 1,434 private schools, there are in towns 1,124, of which 709 are Evangelic, 241 Catholic, 174 Hebrew; in villages 310, of which 169 are Evangelic, 107 Catholic, 34 Hebrew. The town-schools count 74,142, village schools 9,879 pupils. The sum total of children receiving private instruction at the end of 1861, amounted to 84,021.

The establishment of private schools rests partly on local, partly on confessional necessities. The former holds for the Berlin schools, the latter for Hebrew schools, which instruct children in their religion and in the Hebrew language.

IV. Children of school age; attendance at public elementary schools.

PROVINCE.	Population. Census of Dec. 3d, 1861.	CHILDREN OF AN AGE TO ATTEND SCHOOL.						Among the children of an age to attend school, there are in public elementary schools.
		Number.	ATTEND PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.					
			Evangelic.	Catholic.	Hebrew.	Dissent- ers.	Sum total.	
I. Prussia,	2,886,866	A	90,621	40,000	3,081	253	71,670	91 to 92
		B	363,353	254,326	89,176	728	345,252	
		C	453,974	304,175	107,072	979	416,931	
II. Posen,	1,483,550	A	71,460	23,114	27,002	70	61,545	93 to 94
		B	161,728	52,801	103,501	65	156,930	
		C	233,195	75,915	131,403	135	218,444	
III. Branden- burg,	2,467,750	A	196,550	120,047	3,738	186	126,367	82 to 83
		B	230,825	225,149	181	579	227,149	
		C	427,375	343,196	4,722	765	353,416	
IV. Pomerania	1,389,730	A	60,329	55,500	344	418	57,067	93 to 94
		B	173,726	164,805	1,016	1,158	167,963	
		C	240,055	220,464	1,360	1,576	225,350	
V. Silesia,	3,390,695	A	113,814	51,127	46,108	411	100,361	93 to 94
		B	432,482	202,766	214,612	838	418,463	
		C	546,206	253,893	200,720	1,249	519,244	
VI. Saxony,	1,976,417	A	129,405	116,170	4,448	652	121,923	96 to 97
		B	232,069	212,300	15,531	106	224,030	
		C	362,374	328,530	19,979	758	349,973	
VII. Rhenish provinces,	3,215,784	A	183,149	59,754	103,157	209	164,701	95
		B	304,709	68,206	285,004	303	356,113	
		C	547,858	127,954	328,161	512	520,904	
VIII. West- phalia,	1,618,065	A	70,036	29,360	35,226	25	65,200	97 to 98
		B	198,813	90,333	105,144	91	196,156	
		C	268,849	119,693	140,370	116	261,356	
IX. Hohen- zollern,	64,675	A	1,573	29	1,333	—	1,481	99
		B	8,745	30	8,685	—	8,734	
		C	10,318	50	10,018	—	10,218	
Sum total,	18,476,500	A	922,046	505,058	240,152	2,224	771,217	93 to 94
		B	2,167,348	1,270,830	823,653	3,896	2,104,619	
		C	3,010,844	1,775,844	1,063,805	6,090	2,875,836	

In the population of 18,476,500, the number of children of an age to go to school, *i. e.* children of from 5 to 14 years (included) old, amounted to 3,090,294, *i. e.* 17 per cent. There are in public elementary schools, 2,875,836 children, *i. e.* 93 to 94 per cent. The province of Brandenburg

alone is below this average. But this province has, if not the absolute, at least relative largest number of higher schools; and Berlin alone instructs, in its 20 higher and 118 private schools, a very large number of children, which could not be accounted for in the table. Judging that province from this point of view, the average number will prove that the per centage of really educated children is very favorable.

Besides 2,875,836 children educated in public elementary schools, 84,021 were in private schools, together 2,959,857. The table shows 3,090,294 children of an age to attend school; there remain, therefore, 130,437 without instruction. But the Prussian State counts 250 schools for higher education; in their lower classes and preparatory schools are children between 5 and 14 years old, and these should be deducted from 130,437, which will greatly diminish that number. Another number of children, which can not be correctly stated, attend no private or public schools, but receive instruction by tutors and governesses. Taking all these points into account, it can be claimed that the ratio of children really instructed to the whole number who should attend school by the law of the country, is exceedingly favorable, though it can not be denied that there is a comparatively very small number of children who at any specified time are without any instruction.

IV. Salaries of Teachers; other necessities; total expenses of Elementary Schools.

PROVINCE.	The salaries are paid by :			Sum total.	Average of salaries.
	School-fees.	Community or others.	Treasury.		
I. Prussia,	A 88,457 th.	192,210 th.	13,006 th.	293,673 th.	268 thalers.
	B 73,752	606,037	51,810	731,599	160 "
	C 162,200	798,247	64,816	1,025,272	182 "
II. Posen,	A 17,163	137,428	21,782	176,373	224 "
	B 124	246,692	13,724	250,940	144 "
	C 17,287	383,520	35,566	436,313	167 "
III. Brandenburg,	A 182,823	347,661	52,854	583,338	308 "
	B 237,953	316,250	28,612	582,815	206 "
	C 420,806	663,911	81,466	1,166,183	247 "
IV. Pomerania,	A 92,285	166,684	6,529	265,558	269 "
	B 137,501	218,574	11,741	367,876	145 "
	C 229,846	385,258	18,330	633,434	120 "
V. Silesia,	A 121,040	231,508	8,224	360,772	276 "
	B 261,552	504,556	20,316	786,424	158 "
	C 382,592	736,064	22,540	1,147,196	203 "
VI. Saxony,	A 205,133	228,196	15,366	448,695	224 "
	B 184,058	440,471	25,323	649,912	235 "
	C 389,191	668,667	40,749	1,098,607	253 "
VII. Rhenish provinces,	A 225,791	309,428	6,219	541,438	300 "
	B 266,111	542,746	22,894	831,751	195 "
	C 491,902	852,174	29,113	1,373,189	227 "
VIII. Westphalia,	A 80,442	115,037	10,870	206,349	280 "
	B 146,693	197,080	12,908	362,681	191 "
	C 227,135	312,117	29,778	569,030	216 "
IX. Hohenzollern,	A 487 fl.	6,554 fl.	1,450 fl.	8,491 fl.	404 florins.
	B 1,617	30,864	7,928	40,469	291 "
	C 2,104	37,418	9,438	48,960	404 "
Total,	A 1,013,134 th.	1,728,152 th.	134,910 th.	2,876,196 th.	221 thalers.
	B 487 fl.	6,554 fl.	1,450 fl.	8,491 fl.	404 florins.
	C 1,307,834 th.	3,071,246 th.	193,328 th.	4,573,028 th.	181 thalers.
	B 1,617 fl.	30,864 fl.	7,928 fl.	40,469 fl.	291 florins.
	C 2,320,968 th.	4,799,958 th.	322,298 th.	7,449,224 th.	210 thalers.
	B 2,104 fl.	37,418 fl.	9,438 fl.	48,960 fl.	404 florins.

Thus the amount of teachers' salaries at public elementary schools is :

I. In the eight provinces.

A. In towns,.....	2,876,196	thalers.
B. " villages,.....	4,573,028	"
C. Total,.....	7,449,224	" and are raised :
a, by fees paid by pupils,.....	2,320,968	thalers, i. e. 31.16 per cent. of the total amount.
b, " communities,.....	4,799,968	" " 64.44 " " " "
c, " government,.....	328,298	" " 4.40 " " " "

II. In Hohenzollern.

A. In towns,.....	8,401	florins.
B. " villages,	40,409	"
C. Total,.....	48,900	" and are raised :
a, by fees paid by pupils,.....	2,104	florins, i. e. 4.30 per cent. of the total amount.
b. " communities,.....	37,418	" " 76.43 " " " "
c, " government,.....	9,438	" " 19.28 " " " "

The average salary of a teacher in town amounts to 281 thalers, } in the eight
 " " " " village " " 181 " } provinces.

The average salary of a teacher in town amounts to 404 florins, } in Hohenzollern.
 " " " " village " " 291 " }

The average salary of teachers in towns and villages is equal to or greater than the general average salary in Brandenburg, Rhenish provinces, Saxony, and Westphalia; the average salary is below the general average in the other provinces, particularly in Posen.

The amount stated in the tables embraces, besides the salaries, those benefits which the teacher derives from other duties connected with his position as a teacher, *s. g.* sacristan, organist. It is to be presumed that the total income may be a little larger than given in the table, for the part of their income consisting in kind is estimated at the low valuation of the place where they reside, and the portion consisting of not fixed income is given at an average valuation. The salaries are paid from, *a*, school-fees; *b*, from foundation and by the communities; *c*, funds of the state. The contributions of the state for the schools are partly fixed by law, partly allowed as necessity dictates for the general advance of schools. The latter may therefore be refused in part or all, when the necessity no longer exists.

The schools in Berlin are particularly interesting. Their number has almost doubled in the course of six years. In 1861 the number of public schools in that community amounted to 21, with 200 classes; in 1864, to 31, with 300 classes.* There are at present employed in these 31 public schools, 31 head-teachers, 252 class-teachers, 16 female teachers; together, 299 male and female teachers. The 283 male teachers have an annual salary of 158,800 thalers; the 16 female teachers, 4,800 thalers; the community must, therefore, raise 163,600 thalers annually for teachers' salaries. The average salary of a male teacher amounts to 420 thalers; the salary of each female teacher is 300 thalers. The 283 teachers individually receive :

* There are, moreover, 37 private elementary schools, where children are instructed at the expense of the community; the teacher receives, besides the salary paid by the proprietor, a considerable additional salary from the community, after several years of effective services.

4 head-teachers,.....	900 thalers each.		
7 " "	850 " "		
10 " "	800 " "		
10 " "	750 " "		
13 class-teachers,.....	750 " "		
12 " "	700 " "		
26 " "	650 " "		
17 " "	600 " "		
26 " "	500 " "		
65 " "	450 " "		
93 " "	400 " "		

The normal minimum salary of 300 thalers has been raised to 400 thalers, on the 1st of January, 1864, for the next three years. The graduation of salary of class-teachers has been fixed as following :

After the termination of the 3d year in office, salary 450 thalers.						
" " " " 6th " " " 500 "						
" " " " 9th " " " 600 "						
" " " " 14th " " " 650 "						
" " " " 19th " " " 700 "						
" " " " 24th " " " 750 "						

The salaries of the head-teachers vary between 750 and 900 thalers. The salaries of teachers employed in private schools can not be correctly stated. It amounts to between 300 and 700 thalers in Berlin. The 118 private schools in Berlin (table II,) employ 634 male and 345 female teachers ; the average salary of a male teacher may be about 350 thalers, and of a female teacher, 180 thalers ; the proprietors of private schools in Berlin pay, therefore, every year, 284,000 thalers in salaries. Both the royal and town authorities show that they have it at heart to increase the salaries of teachers at elementary schools. The following official table shows what has been done in the period from 1859 to 1861 :

Province.	By the communities, &c.	By government.	Total.
I. Prussia,	23,343 th.	2,620 th.	25,963 th.
II. Posen,.....	16,375	5,117	21,492
III. Brandenburg,*.....	36,320	1,452	37,772
IV. Pomerania,	20,326	792	21,118
V. Silesia,	58,890	4,621	63,511
VI. Saxony,	47,547	2,559	50,106
VII. Rhenish provinces,.	83,105	5,960	89,065
VIII. Westphalia,	33,543	2,466	36,009
IX. Hohenzollern,	3,978 fl.	820 fl.	4,798 fl.
Total,..... }	319,449 th. 3,978 fl.	25,587 th. 820 fl.	345,036 th. 4,798 fl.

* The town of Berlin alone paid, during that period, 14,310 th. The town allowed, in 1862, increase of salary : 4 head-teachers at 50 th =200 th. ; 57 class-teachers at 50 th =2,850 th. ; in all, 3,050 th. In 1863 : 7 head-teachers at 50 th.=350 th ; 52 class-teachers at 50 th.=2,600 th. ; in all, 2,950 th. ; moreover, 6,240 for remunerations and aid. In 1864 : to head-teachers, 3,150 ; class-teachers, 27,250 ; female teachers of needle-work, 792 th. ; in all, 31,192 th. The male and

Hence the average increase of salary in each of these three years: 115,012 thalers and 1,599 florins; viz., by communities, &c., 106,483 thalers and 1,326 florins; by government, 8,529 thalers and 273 florins.

There were raised, moreover, during the same period from 1859 to 1861 included, for keeping elementary schools in repair, building new ones, for enlarging them, &c.:

PROVINCE.	By the communities, &c.	By government.†	Total.
I. Prussia,	970,155 th.	59,973 th.	1,030,128 th.
II. Posen,	438,617	19,786	458,403
III. Brandenburg,‡	915,086	85,791	1,000,877
IV. Pomerania,	387,379	33,195	420,574
V. Silesia,	852,893	33,618	886,511
VI. Saxony,	757,959	55,763	813,712
VII. Rhenish provinces, . .	1,895,968	39,263	1,935,231
VIII. Westphalia,	810,470	4,511	814,981
IX. Hohenzollern,	52,506 fl.	—	52,506 fl.
Total, }	7,028,527 th. 52,506 fl.	331,890 th.	7,360,417 th. 52,506 fl.

The preceding table shows the average sum paid for the objects mentioned in each of the three years: 2,453,472 thalers and 17,502 florins, of which the State paid 110,630. Hence, the annual total expense for public elementary schools:

A. Salaries to teachers,	7,449,224 thalers	48,960 florins.
B. Other necessities,	2,453,472 "	17,502 "
Total,	9,902,696 thalers	66,462 florins.

The government paid of this total expense: 438,928 th. and 9,438 fl., i. e. 4.43 per cent.

Raised by fees for teaching and by communities: the remaining part, 95,57 " "

V. Relief Fund for Widows and Orphans; Pension Fund.

There were the following pension funds for elementary teachers established in 1861, in the following government districts: Gumbinnen, (Prussia;¹) Berlin,² Potsdam,³ (Brandenburg;) Breslau,⁴ Oppeln,⁵ Liegnitz,⁶ (Silesia;) Merseburg,⁷ (Saxony;) Dusseldorf,⁸ Aix-la-Chapelle,⁹ (Rhenish provinces;) Hohenzollern¹⁰—hence in the minority of districts. Of the provinces, Silesia alone is represented in all its three districts;

female teachers of those private schools in which children are instructed at the expense of the town, received, to increase their salaries, in 1862: 5,758 th.; in 1863: 5,800 th.; in 1864: 13,157 thalers.

† The government's aid only for building.

‡ Berlin alone, 179,414 thalers.

(1.) For the whole district; (2.) pension fund of the royal Augusta school; (3.) pension fund for teachers and town-officers in the town of Perleberg; (4, 5, 6,) jointly for all the teachers of both confessions in the district; (7,) in Naumburg; (8,) for all the schools in Barmen; (9,) for male and female teachers of the town-district of Aix-la-Chapelle; (10,) relief fund for schools of the former principality of Sigmaringen. It will be seen that the pension funds are partly for whole provinces, partly for government districts, partly for smaller districts or teachers' communities.

there are no such funds in three of the four districts of Prussia, in one of the three districts of Brandenburg, in two of the three districts of Saxony, in three of the five districts of the Rhenish provinces; in the provinces of Posen, Pomerania, and Westphalia, there are none at all. In the large majority of districts, therefore, the teachers have to content themselves with the pension as *emeriti*, without receiving any addition from a pension fund.

The funds existing in 1861 represent a total capital of 80,652 thalers and 7,977 florins; they had an annual income by interest and regular contributions, of 7,955 thalers and 413 florins; the number of pensioners amounted to 24, (of whom 2 in Hohenzollern;) pensions paid amounted to 6,204 thalers and 115 florins, so that the average pension amounted to 28 thalers, and in Hohenzollern, 57 florins. It is to be hoped that there will have something been done since to ameliorate, in a desirable manner, this important institution—important for the individual teacher, as well as for all teachers as a class.

The relief funds for widows and orphans are like the pension funds, but of recent date. It has therefore been necessary to add the larger part of the annual income to the capital, in order to increase it so as to secure their vitality in proportion to the increasing demand on them. The following table represents the balance sheet in 1861 :

Province.	Capital.	Annual income by interest and contributions.	Number of teachers whose widows and orphans are supported.	Amount of the relief paid.	Average relief of the widow and orphans of each teacher.
I. Prussia,	235,857 th.	20,684 th.	687	10,715 th.	15 thalers.
II. Posen,	109,854	9,397	274	3,567	13 "
III. Brandenburg, .	241,032	20,716	874	16,215	18 "
IV. Pomerania, . . .	112,378	10,814	310	3,279	10 "
V. Sillesia,	197,191	20,002	924	16,300	17 "
VI. Saxony,	294,456	20,079	2,226	12,010	5 "
VII. Rhenish prov.,	349,294	26,664	383	10,410	27 "
VIII. Westphalia, . .	142,096	10,975	323	6,876	21 "
IX. Hohenzollern,	24,268 fl.	1,565 fl.	16	1,138 fl.	71 florins.
Total, {	1,682,158 th. 24,268 fl.	139,331 th. 1,565 fl.	6,017	79,372 th. 1,138 fl.	13 thalers. 71 florins.

Of the income of that year of 139,331 thalers and 1,565 florins, there were paid as relief: 79,372 thalers and 1,138 florins; the remainder, viz., 59,959 thalers and 427 florins, were added to the capital. Though the relief paid from these funds is very small at present, yet it may be expected that the widows and orphans will receive a much larger amount annually, when the necessary capital will be large enough to need no longer additions from the interests.

I close with the remarks which precede the tables in the official publication: "The amelioration of the pension system for teachers of elementary schools, and the realization of a more comfortable condition of the widows and orphans, are objects to which the attention of the government is constantly directed."

[The Prussian "Staatsanzeiger," No. 101, (May 1st, 1866,) reports the financial condition of the elementary schools, as follows:

The budget for 1866 proposes 583,214 thalers for elementary schools, which is 103,391 thalers more than 1861, or 21.5 per cent. more than last year. According to the budget plan of 1861, the normal schools received from the government, 164,673 thalers. This amount has been increased every year, in consequence of new arrangements and the enlargement of the established schools, to 288,138 a year, of which 214,619 thalers are paid out of the treasury, and 28,514 thalers from foundations and other funds. To this aid by government must be added the income of the normal schools, amounting to 104,997 thalers; an increase of 20,910 thalers, compared with 1861. The total expenses for normal schools amount, therefore, to 348,180 thalers, of which 157,701 are for salaries of teachers, and 185,429 for administration and the running expenses.

Included in this expenditure are the expenses of the students in the preparatory schools of normal schools, of the candidates for the office of teachers, and of those young men who prepare for the office as teachers outside the normal schools. The last mentioned individuals consume the largest portion, viz., 329,972 thalers. The following normal schools have been established since 1861: The Evangelic schools at Friedland, Kozmin, Reichenbach, and Drossen, and the Catholic schools at Exin, Liebenthal, Berent, and Pilchowitz.

Of the 55 normal schools, there are, in Prussia, 7 Evangelic, and 2 Catholic; in Posen, 3 Evangelic, 3 Catholic; in Pomerania, 6 Evangelic; in Silesia, 5 Evangelic and 4 Catholic; in Brandenburg, 6 Evangelic; in Saxony, 8 Evangelic, 1 Catholic; in Westphalia, 2 Evangelic, 4 Catholic; in Rhenish provinces, 2 Evangelic, 2 Catholic.

The average number of pupils at the normal schools amounts to 8,065, to which should be added 344 pupils of those new establishments of which the average has not yet been drawn.

The financial budget proposes to expend 244,088 thalers for the assistance of elementary schools; an increase of 17,631 thalers against 1861, in consequence of the establishment of new schools and the increase of salary of the teachers.

The wants of the elementary schools are to be provided for by the communities and patrons; the government assists where it appears necessary. The government pays in the different provinces the following sums:

To Prussia,	41,899 thalers.	To Saxony,	17,293 thalers.
" Posen,	40,938 "	" Westphalia,	19,478 "
" Pomerania,	11,503 "	" Rhenish provinces,	34,017 "
" Silesia,	13,139 "	" Berlin,	2,720 "
" Brandenburg,	40,458 "		

There are, moreover, 10,000 thalers proposed as a reserve fund for the elementary schools, for unforeseen expenses; 4,588 thalers for increase of salary of teachers at elementary schools, and 8,000 thalers for the assistance of *emeriti*, which sums are to be distributed according to necessity.

To the foregoing account of the historical development and general results of the system of primary schools in Prussia, prepared by an eminent teacher and successful laborer for their improvement, Dr. Thilo, Director of the Teachers' Seminary in Berlin, we append a brief view of the different degrees and subjects of primary instruction.

GRADES OF SCHOOLS AND SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.

The law and ordinances which regulate elementary instruction in Prussia distinguish two grades of schools, besides voluntary courses and schools to meet the special circumstances of particular classes.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—These are divided into the *common* or *peoples'* schools, and the *burgher* schools. The *common* schools—the main reliance of all the rural and a vast majority of the city population, proposes the development of the human faculties, though those branches of knowledge which are indispensable to every person, both of town and country, and are distributed into four equal periods of two years each, as follows:

1. First period—two years, between the ages of six and eight. Four principal subjects:—viz., (1) Logical exercises, consisting of oral instruction, in the exercise of the faculties of observation and expression. This branch includes religious instruction and singing by ear. (2) Elements of reading. (3) Elements of writing. (4) Elements of arithmetic.

2. Second period—two years, from eight to ten years of age. Seven chief subjects:—viz., (1) Reading. (2) Writing. (3) Religious and moral lessons, select Bible histories. (4) German grammar. (5) Arithmetic. (6) Elements of geometry. (7) Elements of music, singing by notes.

3. Third period—two years, from ten to twelve years of age. Eight principal subjects:—viz., (1) Lessons in reading and elocution. (2) Ornamental writing, preparatory to drawing. (3) Religious instruction in the connected Bible history. (4) German grammar and analysis. (5) Elements of natural history and science, technical science, geography and history. (6) Arithmetic, including fractions and proportion. (7) Geometry, theory of magnitudes and proportion. (8) Singing, and science of vocal and instrumental music.

4. Fourth period—two years, from twelve to fourteen years of age. Six chief subjects:—(1) Religion and morals. (2) General geography and history, with special regard to civilization, agriculture, mechanical arts, manufactures, &c. (3) German language, exercises in composition. (4) Application of arithmetic and mathematics to the business of life, including elements of surveying and civil engineering. (5) Elements of drawing. (6) Science of music, singing.

The *Burgher School* provides for an extension of all these studies, and particularly of the German and modern languages, physics and natural history, the geography, history and industries of Prussia, drawing, singing and gymnastics.

II. SUPPLEMENTARY (*Fortbildungen*) AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.

(1.) *Evening classes*, twice a week, where young persons, who have completed their fourteenth year, may continue their studies.

(2.) *Sunday classes* which young persons, who have completed their primary school course, and do not proceed to a secondary school, are required to attend.

(3.) *Industrial classes*, in which girls are instructed in sewing, knitting, hemming, darning, skirt-making, stitching, &c.

(4.) *Factory schools* for children employed in any manual occupation, before the completion of their twelfth year.

(5.) *Technical schools*, in towns, established by the local authorities, and supported by the State. Attendance at these is voluntary, but a master may not prevent his apprentice from attending them. The number of lessons is six per week; comprising free-hand drawing, arithmetic, geometry, special kinds of drawing, oeconomics, natural sciences, mechanics and modeling.

(6.) *Infant Schools and Kindergarten*, mostly after Fröbel's plan.

(7.) *Rescue Institutes, Reform Schools, and Orphan Homes*, after Wichern's plan.

LEGAL PROVISION

RESPECTING THE

EDUCATION, IMPROVEMENT, AND SUPPORT OF TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA.

THE following are the provisions of the law of 1819 respecting Normal Schools and teachers. It is difficult to describe the well-qualified teacher in more appropriate language :

“In order that a master may be enabled to fulfill the duties of his station, he ought to be religious, wise, and alive to the high importance of his profession. He ought thoroughly to understand the duties of his station, to have acquired the art of teaching and managing youth, to be firm in his fidelity to the state, conscientious in the discharge of his duties, friendly and prudent in his relations with the parents of his children, and with his fellow-citizens in general ; finally, he ought to inspire all around him with a lively interest in the progress of the school, and to render them favorably inclined to second his own wishes and endeavors.”

In order to insure the education of such schoolmasters, the following regulations are laid down :

“Each department is required to have a number of young men well prepared for their duties, who may supply the yearly vacancies in the ranks of the schoolmasters of the department, and therefore each department shall be required to support a Normal School. These establishments shall be formed on the basis of the following regulations :

1. No Normal School for teachers in the primary schools shall admit more than seventy pupil teachers.

2. In every department where the numbers of Catholics and Protestants are about equal, there shall be, as often as circumstances will permit, a Normal School for the members of each sect. But where there is a very marked inequality in the numbers of the two sects, the masters of the least numerous sect shall be obtained from the Normal Schools belonging to that sect in a neighboring department, or by smaller establishments in the same department annexed to an elementary primary school. Normal Schools for simultaneous education of two sects shall be permitted when the pupil teachers can obtain close at hand suitable religious instruction, each in the doctrines of his own church.

3. The Normal Schools shall be established whenever it is possible in small towns, so as to preserve the pupil teachers from the dissipation, temptations, and habits of life which are not suitable to their future profession, without subjecting them to a monastic seclusion ; but the town ought not to be too small, in order that they may profit by the vicinity of several elementary and superior primary schools.

6. No young man can be received into a Normal School who has not passed through a course of instruction in an elementary primary school ; nor can any young man be received, of the excellence of whose moral character there is the least ground of suspicion. The age of admission into the Normal Schools shall be from sixteen to eighteen years.

7. As to the methods of instruction, directors of the Normal Schools shall rather seek to conduct the pupil teachers by their own experience to simple and clear principles, than to give them theories for their guidance ; and with this end in view, primary schools shall be joined to all the

Normal Schools, where the pupil teachers may be practised in the art of teaching.

8. In each Normal School *the course of instruction shall last three years*, of which the first shall be devoted to the continuation of the course of instruction which the pupils commenced in the primary schools; the second to an instruction of a still higher character, and the third to practice in the primary school attached to the establishment. For those who are sufficiently advanced when they enter not to require the first year's instruction, the course may be reduced to one of two years.

10. In each Normal School particular funds, set apart for that purpose, shall be devoted to the support of young men of good character not able to pay for themselves, *but in such a manner as not to habituate them to too many comforts, and not to render them unfit for the worst paid situations in the primary schools.*

11. Every pupil who receives such assistance from a Normal School, is obliged at the end of his educational course to accept the place which the provincial consistories assign him; a prospect of advancement, however, must always be held out to him in case of perseverance and good conduct.

12. The provincial consistories have the immediate surveillance of all the Normal Schools in the different departments of their respective provinces; and the provincial ecclesiastical authorities have the especial surveillance of the religious instruction of their respective sects."

The following provisions, gathered from the law of 1819, and from the general regulations, have an important bearing on the social and pecuniary condition of the teacher.

No young man is allowed to conduct a primary school until he has obtained a certificate of his capacity to fulfill the important duties of a schoolmaster. The examinations of the candidates for these certificates is conducted by commissions, composed of two laymen and two clergymen, or two priests. The provincial consistories nominate the lay members, the ecclesiastical authorities of the respective provinces nominate the clerical members for the examination of the religious education of the Protestant candidates; and the Roman Catholic bishop nominates the two priests who examine the Roman Catholic candidates.

The members of these commissions are nominated for three years, and they can afterward be continued in their office if advisable.

The lay examiners and the clerical examiners join in granting the certificates, but the religious and secular examinations are conducted separately. The certificates are signed also by the director of the Normal School in which the young man has been educated, and describe his moral character and his intellectual capability.

These certificates are not valid until they have been ratified by the superior authorities, that is, by the provincial consistories; and in the case of the certificates granted to the Roman Catholics, the further ratification of the bishop is necessary. If the provincial consistories and the bishops can not agree about the granting of any certificate, the matter is referred to the minister of public instruction, who decides between them. The provincial authorities can re-examine the candidates, if they think there is any reason to doubt what is specified on the certificate granted by the committee of examination, and can declare them incapable, and can require the local authorities to proceed to another examination if they are not satisfied with the character of any of the candidates.

The young women who are candidates for the situations of school-mistresses are obliged to submit to the same kind of examination before they can obtain the certificate enabling them to take the charge of a girls' school.

The election and nomination of masters for the communal schools, is the duty of the local committees, on the presentation of the communal inspectors.

The masters can not be installed and begin to receive their salaries, until their certificates have been ratified by the provincial authorities.

"The provincial consistories are required to choose able and zealous clerical inspectors, and to engage them to form and direct great associations between the masters of the town and rural schools, for the purpose of fostering among them a feeling of interest in their profession, of furthering the further development of their education by regular reunions, by consultations, conversations, practical treatises, study of particular branches of instruction, and discussions on treatises read aloud in their public assemblies."

These teachers' conferences are very useful. They not only promote a spirit of generous emulation among the schoolmasters, and so stimulate them to further exertions, but they encourage the masters, by reminding them that they form part of a great and honorable body. And nothing encourages man more than a feeling of association. Man alone is weak and timid; but let him only feel that his feelings and aims are those of a number who regard him as their fellow, and he then is a giant in his aims and efforts.

The provincial consistories have the power of sending the master of a primary school, who appears to be in need of further instruction, to a Normal School, for the time that may appear requisite to give him the necessary additional instruction; during his absence his place is supplied by a young man from the Normal School, who receives a temporary certificate.

The expenses of the conferences and of the masters who frequent for a second time the Normal Schools, are generally defrayed by the provincial educational authorities.

The schoolmasters are encouraged to continue their own education by hopes of preferment to better situations, or to superior schools; but before they can attain this preferment, they must pass a second examination, conducted by the same authorities who conducted the former.

If a schoolmaster is negligent or conducts himself improperly in his station, the inspector of the school first remonstrates with him, and if this fails to convince him, the inspector of the canton reproves him; and if he still prove refractory, they report him to the provincial authorities, who have the power of fining him, or of removing him from the school.

If he commits any flagrant crime, he is reported at once to the provincial authorities, who remove him immediately, after having carefully verified the accusations brought against him by the inspectors.

Every school in a village or town must have a garden suitable to the nature of the country and habits of the people, for a kitchen-garden, nursery-orchard, or the raising of bees. This is provided as an additional resource for the teacher, as well as an available means of instruction of the scholars.

Every school-house must not only embrace what we regard as essential features in such structures, such as size, location, ventilation, warmth, seats and desks, &c., but apparatus for illustrating every study, and "a sufficient collection of books for the use of the master," as well as a residence for him.

Whenever a new fund, legacy, or donation, accrues to the schools of a province or commune, the same must be appropriated to the improvement of the school, or of the master's income, and not to the diminution of any tax or rate before collected.

The practice of "boarding round," or the right of the teacher to a place at the table of every family in the commune or district in rotation

(called in German, Wandeltisch, movable table,) formerly prevailed in Prussia, but it was first arrested by an ordinance in 1811, directing that this "movable table" should not be reckoned in payment of the teacher's compensation, and should be given up at the option of the teacher. It is now abandoned in every commune which makes any pretension to civilization. It never included any thing beyond an "itinerating table." The teacher always had a fixed residence provided, and usually under the same roof with his school.

Scholars are encouraged to form among themselves a fund, by voluntary contributions, for the assistance of their necessitous schoolfellows. The fund is managed by themselves under the direction of their teacher. This is done to cultivate good feeling in the school, and save the teacher from a constant tax for articles for such pupils.

All school fees, all contributions or assessments in money, fuel, &c., must be collected by the regular school authorities, and not by the teacher. And no service can be required of the teacher in or about the school, and he can engage in no employment, which will lower his dignity, or weaken his influence.

All public teachers are regarded as public functionaries, and are exempt from liability to military service in time of peace, and from all local and capitation taxes, or if taxed, an equivalent is allowed in an increase of salary.

Whenever any division of land belonging to a parish, or town, is made, a sufficient quantity shall be allotted to the schoolmaster for a vegetable garden, and for the feed of a cow. Wherever the right of common exists, the teacher shall share in its benefits.

Schoolmasters who become temporarily infirm, are entitled to an allowance from the school moneys provided for the support of their schools. And when permanently disabled, are entitled to an annual allowance from the income of funds provided in each province for this purpose, and for the support of the widows and children of teachers, who entitle themselves to such provision for their families, by a small annual contribution from their salaries.

Teachers, who show themselves entitled to promotion to the direction of Normal Schools, are enabled to travel both in Prussia, and other countries, for the purpose of extending their knowledge of the organization, instruction and discipline of schools.

A valuable ordinance passed in 1826, and renewed in 1846, requires the director of a seminary to travel about, once a year, and visit a certain part of the schools within his circuit. He makes himself acquainted with the state of the school, listens to the instruction given, takes part himself in the same, and gives to the teacher such hints for improvement as his observation may suggest. The results of his yearly visits he presents, in the form of a report, to the school authorities of the province. This occasional visitation is very useful in clearing up the dark corners of the land, correcting abuses, and giving an impulse, from time to time, to teachers, who might otherwise sink into apathy and neglect. To render the efficacy of the seminaries more complete, it is provided that at the end of three years after leaving the seminary, the young teachers shall return to pass a second examination.

By an ordinance in 1826, it is provided: "To the end, that the beneficial influence of the seminary may extend itself to those teachers already established, who either require further instruction, or who in their own cultivation and skill in office do not advance, perhaps even recede; it is required that such teachers be recalled into the seminary for a shorter or longer time, as may be needful for them, in order, either to pass through a whole methodical course, or to practice themselves in particular departments of instruction."

The Normal Schools of Prussia, in their general aims, and special studies and methods, were very materially modified by the "*Regulatio*" of the Minister of Public Instruction, issued in October, 1854, the substance of which we give below, in a very compressed form, from Rev. M. Pattison's Report in 1860.

PRUSSIAN "REGULATIV" OF OCT. 1, 1854.

1. SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.—No systematic *pädagogik*, not even in a popular form, is to be taught in the seminary, but in its place shall be taught art of school management, for not more than two hours per week. This course may contain, in the first year, a simple picture of the Christian school in its first origin, and in its relation to family, church and state; the most important names among the schoolmen since the Reformation may be pointed out, and their influence in forming the elementary school exhibited.

In the second year, the objects and the arrangement of the elementary school may be explained; the proper principles of Christian instruction and discipline expounded.

In the third year, the pupils may be taught their duties as hereafter servants of the state and church,—the means of improving themselves after they leave the seminary,—but the greater part of their time this year will be taken up with preparing for the lessons in the practicing school, and in endeavoring to gain a clear hold of the experiences they make in the same. The separate instruction of each teacher in the seminary is the only introduction which can be given to a good method, where this separate instruction is based on the principle of teaching in the seminary the same matter and in the same form as is required in the elementary school itself. Method, therefore, will no longer be taught as a separate branch, and as a part of "school management," (*schulkunde*,) will be only so far introduced that the connection between the various parts of elementary teaching may be explained, and the relation in which each part stands to the objects of the school and to the education it is designed to give.

Under the head Education nothing more is necessary to be taught to the elementary teacher than to bring together and explain the texts in Holy Scripture which touch on the subject; the doctrine of sin, of man's need of a Saviour, of the law of Divine Redemption and Sanctification, is a *pädagogik* which requires little elucidation from the sciences of human nature.

Under the head School Education the principles of discipline and teaching should be more minutely gone into, but these lessons should be given in strict connection with the experience obtained by the scholar in the practicing school.

2. RELIGION.—The religious instruction hitherto given in many seminaries, under the title of "Christian Doctrine," is henceforth to be termed in the lesson table "Catechism." Its object is to provide a direction and a firm footing for the individual religious confession of the pupil, through a clear and profound understanding of God's Word, upon the basis of the evangelical doctrines, teaching them through this understanding to know themselves, and their relation to the divine scheme for Salvation, and so laying the only true foundation for their whole Christian life.

As this instruction is not one which the teacher has himself to reproduce in the course of his teaching in the elementary school, it is therefore not subject to the same limitations in all respects as the other portions of the seminary course, which do occur again in the elementary school. Immediately, however, the religious instruction received in the seminary ought to exert a powerful influence on the whole mental life of the teacher; and it is therefore of great importance that sure and abiding results of a Christian confession, conformable with the dogmatic conceptions of the church, should be attempted. The basis of this instruction must be of course the symbolical books of the Evangelical church, i. e., the smaller catechism of Luther, or the Heidelberg catechism.

The exposition necessary for the understanding this catechism will no longer be left to the individual seminary teacher; a manual must be employed for the purpose, which shall contain all that is necessary for a schoolmaster to know. By the advice of the Evangelical church council, we hereby order that the

"Barmen Catechism" be exclusively used in the Evangelical seminaries, and that the teacher be restricted to seeing that the pupils understand the same, and make it their own, without himself adding anything further to its substance.

It is further requisite that the schoolmaster cherish a warm and lively sympathy with the church life of the present. To this end some knowledge of the past is requisite, but no regular chronological course of church history can be given in the seminary. It shall suffice that the pupils learn the most important facts and names in the method of biographical groups, especial reference being had to the Apostolical period, to the Reformation, the present period, and the extension of the church by missionary enterprise, that the future schoolmaster may be thus qualified for a free and disinterested action in the fields both of the foreign and inner mission, the succor of the poor and the forsaken, and other charitable objects. This is an object which can not be attained so much by lessons as by lending appropriate books, or reading passages out of them, by introducing the pupils to practical participation in the various mission enterprises. It would be desirable that the seminaries, as such, should be enrolled as members of the mission unions.

The next point to be attended to in the religious instruction in the seminary is, to bring this instruction, much more than hitherto, into immediate relation to the religious instruction to be given in the elementary school. To this purpose there is required a clear understanding of the duty of the elementary school in respect of the religious instruction it is called upon to give.

First, it must be firmly established that systematic treatment of Christian doctrine, whether in the way of explanation of catechism, or independent expounding of dogmas or Scripture texts, is not the province of the elementary teacher, but of the clergyman. The catechism lesson in the school is only a lesson preparatory to the confirmation preparation to be given by the pastor, and must be restricted to bringing the catechism in its verbal and material meaning before the understanding, and inculcating it in the memory of the children.

Secondly, Scripture History must be treated as the field in which the elementary school has to solve the problem of founding and extending the Christian life of the youth committed to its charge. It must be pre-supposed that this instruction aims neither at moral applications nor at abstract dogmatic inferences, but at leading the children to the sure apprehension and the inward and faithful appropriation of the facts of God's treatment of His chosen people and of the whole human race, and thence to deduce for them the eternal ideas of the most important divine and human things. In this view, the whole course of the Biblical history must be gone through with the seminarist, who shall thus be brought to an immediate and intuitional knowledge of the fundamental ideas and truths, by living in and through each step and each personal relation of the religious life under the leading of God's Word.

The future schoolmaster shall be required to be able to repeat, without book, each Scripture history in the form in which it is taught in the school. He shall be further led to handle each of these histories in detail, and with due reference to the general objects of Scripture teaching, in strict connection with the order of the church's year, so that he may know how to establish a connection of his school with the liturgical life, and make the children conscious participators in the same. From this time forth an indispensable condition of admission into the seminary will be an exact acquaintance with these histories as contained in such manuals of those of Zahn, Preuss, or Otto Schultz, and the ability to recite them by heart.

Here follow specific directions for reading the Bible and the gospels and epistles for the year; for learning texts and hymns. The section concludes thus:—

Religious instruction, conducted according to these principles, will form teachers clearly aware of what they have to do, possessing within themselves a sufficient knowledge of the word, doctrine, and life of the Evangelic church; it will open to them the entrance upon a God-fearing life, in which they may find practical experience of the course by which God leads us from sin to justifi-

fication by faith, which worketh by love. To this end, the whole life in the seminary must be brought under the discipline of the Word and the Spirit; teachers and pupils alike must draw from the fountain of grace, and the community must exhibit a pattern of common Christian life.

3. LANGUAGE.—The future teacher is sufficiently qualified to instruct in language and reading in the elementary school, when he knows how to handle rightly the spelling and reading book. The seminaries hitherto have too much neglected to teach a simple method of learning to read. Consequently, years have been spent in acquiring, perhaps very imperfectly, what might be attained in months, viz., the mechanical power of reading. To qualify the schoolmaster in this branch, neither theoretical instruction nor yet practice in the model school will alone suffice; but it will be necessary to take the seminarist in the lowest class through a course of practical lessons in all the details of teaching to read, which practice must be continued till the right method has been thoroughly mastered by each pupil.

Again, in the use of the reading book, it is not enough to instruct the seminarist generally in the mode of interpreting; each portion and passage of the reading book, authoritatively introduced into the schools of the province, must be gone through in the way in which it has to be by them afterwards treated in the elementary school.

In connection with the reading book the pupils must be introduced to German grammar, keeping in view always, that this is a subject which they will not have to teach again in the school.

This is the reading course for the third class. In the two upper classes the object of this branch of instruction is, starting from the knowledge acquired in the lower class, to introduce the pupil to so much of the contents of the language as is necessary for the level of culture, proper for an elementary teacher, and for life among the people. To acquire a good and correct intonation the best method is, to penetrate the sense of what is read. The ability to read difficult passages well forms a tolerably correct measure for judging the amount of formal education possessed by the seminarist. Wackernagel's reading book may be taken, and a selection of pieces in prose and verse made from it, ascending from the easy to the more difficult, and as to their substance bearing on the arrangement of the other parts of the pupils' course. These passages must be worked over till they are thoroughly understood, and have become the learner's own property. Teacher and pupil have here the fittest opportunity to apply the art of concentration of teaching. Within the limits of these passages must be acquired the power of understanding and using his own language so far as it is requisite for the elementary master, without any theoretical lessons of etymology, prosody, lexicology, &c. The remaining contents of the reading book may be afterwards read in a more cursory way, without, however, neglecting to understand what is read, or to practice the reproduction of that which has been read.

The written exercises for the lower and middle class must be set in connection with the reading lesson; but in the upper class they may consist in independent reproduction of single parts out of other parts of the course, or in consideration of questions which concern the profession of teacher. Here also the pupil should learn the written forms of office and business which he may have afterwards occasion for.

The students of each year must have a course of private reading pointed out to them, of which they shall be called on from time to time to give an account to the teacher. In the choice of books for this purpose, regard must be had, not merely to the student's own culture, but to the influence which he may hereafter exercise, beyond the limits of the school, upon the character and morals of the people. Accordingly, the so-called classical literature (of Germany) must be prohibited from forming any part of this private course, and nothing must be admitted into it but what has a tendency to promote church life.

Here follows a list of permissible books.

4. HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.—Both these branches shall start from a common point; that of our own country. General history is useless in the seminary, and the instruction shall be confined to German history, with especial

regard to that of Prussia and the history of the province. It must be considered one of the first duties of the school teacher to inculcate in the rising generation a knowledge of the patriotic traditions and characters of the past and present, along with respect and love to the reigning family. This patriotic species of history should be brought into connection with the life of the people, and their mode of thinking, for which purpose the days of patriotic commemoration are to be put prominently forward, and employed as points of departure. The student should learn the best specimens of popular poetry; both the words and tune; thus making their instruction, both in language and music, serviceable to that of patriotic history. The custom already adopted in some seminaries, of having special celebrations of memorial days for events in our national or ecclesiastical year, which are not already adopted into the church year, is hereby recommended for general imitation. The following days might be so distinguished:* 18th January, 18th February, 18th and 25th June, 3d August, 15th, 18th, 31st October, and 10th November, leaving other days for particular provincial commemorations to be added. The commemoration may fitly consist in the execution of appropriate music; on the church days chaunting; adding explanations of the respective events commemorated.

As the instruction in history is confined to the two upper classes, so the instruction in geography shall be confined to the two lower classes.

Then follows the programme of the geographical course.

5. KNOWLEDGE OF NATURE.—Natural history shall be taught in the first and second years' classes two hours per week; not in a strictly scientific way, or adopting any classification. The principal indigenous plants and animals shall be brought before the pupils and described to them. In botany a foundation for further future study shall be laid. They shall be taught to distinguish the principal native minerals and rocks. A popular description of the human body shall be given. It is scarcely necessary to say that a necessary condition of this instruction is a religious disposition and tendency. The pupils ought to acquire a love for nature and natural occupations. A practical direction, too, may be given to this branch of instruction by constant reference to gardening, agriculture, industry and trade. In the third year the students may advance to natural philosophy, which shall always be treated in an experimental way, without mathematical formulæ; the common instruments, machines, and mechanical powers may be explained to them, with the phenomena of heat, electricity and magnetism.

6. ARITHMETIC AND GEOMETRY.—The latter is limited to acquaintance with the principal geometrical figures, plane and solid, their properties and modes of measuring them, without any scientific method or calculus. Arithmetical operations, with three places of figures, are to be practiced as in the elementary school, as follows: In ciphering, the practical end of the people's school vanishes, on the one hand, all the lessons in the theory of number which were formerly given, and, on the other, avoids with equal care the working of problems by the mechanical methods of multiplication table. Mental arithmetic, not permitted as a separate exercise, as a useless fatigue of brain, is used to correct the mechanism of the slate, and is restricted to the system of enumeration as distinct from that of notation. Setting sums to work in abstract number is to be done as little as possible; in the lower class altogether avoided. The examples should be always in concrete number. This latter rule is deduced from the principle of concentration of teaching, which is further carried through in the requirements, that the four operations shall not be taught as separate processes, each governed by its separate rule, but in their mutual connection; nor fractions be made a distinct branch. The true division which is to separate the lower from the upper class in arithmetic, is the magnitude of the quantities dealt with. Thus a child is carried through all the operations, fractional and unitarian, in the tens before it advances to the hundreds, and so on. Geometry, a favorite subject with the old masters, is not now admitted into the one-class school,

* It may be necessary to state the events for which these days are famous: 18th January, 1701, Prussia become a kingdom; 18th February, 1546, Luther died; 18th June, 1815, Battle of Belle Alliance; 3d August, 1770, Frederick William III. born; 15th October, 1795, King's Birthday; 18th October, 1813, Battle of Leipzig; 31st October, 1517, Reformation; 10th November, 1493, Luther born.

though we find it sometimes taught in the upper classes of a six-class school in connection with designing.

For leave to go into the higher parts of arithmetic, proportion, decimals, extraction of roots, not for application in the school, but for their own improvement, application may be made to the provincial government.

7. WRITING is to be taught with an especial view to acquiring a plain and flowing hand, and, secondly, to learning how to set clear copies of single letters and strokes in proper succession for the school. The copies executed by the pupils are to be at once exercises in caligraphy and an intellectual discipline. The method of teaching to write is to be learnt along with the practice in writing.

8. DRAWING in the Seminary must not go beyond introductory lessons in the linear representation of simple objects.

9. MUSIC is cultivated in the seminary for moral and church objects. The art is never to be regarded as its own end. The field of instruction here is one of deep and earnest moral purpose; in great measure a sacred purpose. The seminary has to form, not only the teacher of singing for the school, but the organist and the precentor for the church.

10. GYMNASTIC. 11. GARDENING.—Instruction in gardening, cultivation of fruit-trees, silk, &c., shall be given, or some part of it, in every seminary; but local opportunities will determine their character.

The above is the substance, very greatly compressed, of a document even more than usually involved in vague and abstract language. It relates only to the three years' course in the seminary, and one of its main objects is to restrict the variety and ambitiousness of the previous system. How far even the limited course here prescribed can be carried out, depends necessarily on how far the young men, at their admission to the seminary, are qualified to commence the course here described. As I have already said, the greater part of them come so raw and uncultivated, that they require the greater part of the first year to make them fit to begin their training. On every side in Prussia are heard complaints of the want of preparation on the part of the *präparanden*, as they are called, before their entry at the seminary. Yet these youths have all had the advantages of the elementary school, generally a six-class school, up to fourteen, and have since that time been professing to prepare themselves specially for entrance at the seminary. As they can not enter the seminary till eighteen, (in Prussia,) and as the seminary professes to make very little addition to the matters taught in the elementary school, but mainly to practice and fix what has been there learnt, it must excite our wonder, what have these youths been doing in the interval between leaving school and applying for admission at the seminary, that they come so ill prepared?

The principle which appears to govern that reform of the North German seminaries, which has been accomplished in the last eight years, or is still in progress, may be best described by its contrast to that which it has supplanted. The aim of the seminaries in the last generation was less to train the future schoolmaster for the technical work of teaching children of from eight to fourteen to read, write and cipher, than to give him a complete mental culture. The old seminary was a university on a small scale, and confined to a particular faculty its science of *pädagogik*. It had some of the excellencies, and many of the defects, of the German university; it had its elevated, universal, super-professional aim, and breadth of culture; it had also its defects of method; its frittering of the matters taught into so many abstract branches, erected into sciences, and theoretically lectured upon, not taught. The old seminary teacher was a professor, who gave his courses of logic, *Pädagogik*, *Didactik*, *Methodik*, anthropology or psychology. The seminarists were students who sat listening to these lofty harangues, and writing out their *Heften* from them. A few among them caught from him a love of knowledge, and an

undefined ambition for intellectual self-development; meanwhile, the great mass of them comprehended little of all they heard, and went away in ignorance of the rudiments, while the technical qualifications for their future vocation were neglected by all. A master so turned out into life was not only not qualified, he was positively unfitted, for his duties. He found himself, with an unsatisfied intellectual craving, condemned to an inferior social position, to a starving salary, without prospect of promotion, and bound to a labor which he despised. Even if he liked teaching, his wish was to teach as he had been taught, and he began to lecture his children on natural science, on astronomy, on history or theology, or on the beauties of Schiller, according to his taste. His dissatisfaction with his own lot in life begot a political discontent. Though he dared not utter this, he felt it keenly. The agitations of 1848-9 were a "schoolmasters' revolution." It is not necessary to inquire here if this be true or not; it is sufficient that such a belief is generally entertained, at least among the governments, and the classes connected with them. The reaction against the old system was rapid in proportion to the imminence of the danger. This reaction was partly one of purely educational theory, partly one of political alarm. A sounder educational opinion proscribed at once the aim and the method hitherto pursued. The proper aim of the seminary was perceived to be, not to educate its pupils as men, but to train them as schoolmasters. The forming and development of the understanding were here entirely out of place. The whole scientific furniture of the old seminary was turned out of doors. *Pädagogik*, name and thing, were banished, and at most, the practical management of a school (*Schulkunde*) was retained as a subject of lessons for one hour per week. Physics, the favorite branch of the old teachers, were to cease as science, and their place taken by *Heimathskunde*, or observation of the phenomena of our own neighborhood. The vague and aimless "history," upon which so much time had been hitherto wasted, was supplanted by the more manageable "history of our fatherland," i. e., of Prussia in Prussian seminaries, of Saxony in the Saxon, &c. The "so-called classical literature" of Germany was absolutely prohibited, even for private reading, and in its place a select library, chiefly compilations of modern writers, was ordered for the seminary. Finally, learning by rote was to take the place of the formal exercise of the understanding; and instead of knowledge, the object proposed to the student was the acquisition of the technical facilities which the children were to learn from him.

These were the educational principles of the reform; of the political principles involved it is not necessary that I should speak. It is as much in the interest of the schoolmasters themselves as in that of the existing social order, that they should have learnt to know their own place in it. The spirit of independence, self-reliance and intellectual ambition which the old seminary fostered, made them not only dangerous to church and state, but unhappy in their confined sphere of life. The young teachers whom the seminaries are now turning out, as far as I have had opportunities of observing them, are of a very different temper. The official reports from all the departments concur in stating, in the words of that of Merseberg, (March, 1858,) that "the former eagerness for emancipation on the part of the teachers had disappeared." The older teachers, if they retain the feeling, find it necessary to conceal it. A spirit of subordination, of contentment with their lot, and acquiescence in church authority, is now prevalent. His energy has perhaps gone with it, but at any rate his restlessness has disappeared.

This result has not been attained exclusively by repressive measures. Within the last few years great efforts have been made to improve the salaries of the teachers.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BELGIUM.

AREA—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT—HISTORY.

BELGIUM, as at present constituted, is bounded on the north by Holland, on the east by Germany, on the south by France, and on the West by the English Channel, and has an area of 11,313 square miles, with a population (in 1863) of 4,893,021 inhabitants. It was established as an independent kingdom in 1830, and according to the charter of 1831, is a "constitutional, representative, and hereditary monarchy." The legislative power is vested in the King, the Chamber of Representatives, and the Senate. The royal succession is in the direct male line, in the order of primogeniture. The executive is vested in six departments, (*ministriés*.) with a responsible minister at the head of each. The Roman catholic religion is professed by nearly the entire population of Belgium: the protestants, according to the last census, numbering less than 13,000, while the Jews number scarcely 2,000. But the fullest liberty is allowed to the expression of religious opinions, and to modes of worship. In every department of industry, Belgium ranks high among the nations of Europe, and the manufacture of cloth and machinery of all kinds, is carried on extensively, and in great perfection.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION.

Long before the christian era, the nation of the Belgians had given its name to one of the three grand divisions of ancient Gaul, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries. What was called Belgium then, comprised all the territory between the Rhine, the Vosges mountains, the Marne, the Seine, and the Ocean, and was inhabited by twenty-four different nations or tribes, collectively called "Belgians."

Most of these tribes had an oligarchical or republican form of government; their chief occupation was the chase, and war was their delight. They also had their religion and their priests, the Druids, who formed a distinct class of society, living mostly in the deepest seclusion of the forests, where they performed the mysterious rites of their religion, and cultivated the sciences and poetry. They were not only the priests, poets, philosophers, physicians, and judges, of the nation, but likewise the first educators of youth. Every Druid had his disciples, his scholars, young men, who intended to become members of the sacred order, and who were instructed not only in the religious rites, but likewise in poetry, rhetoric, astronomy, physics, &c.

The most ancient druidical school, according to Du Baulary, was at

Bibracte, (*Aulun.*) Another centre of educational efforts was the Greek Colony at Marsilia, (*Marseilles.*) which had more a literary than a religious character, and which erected numerous branch-schools throughout Gaul.

After a long and vigorous resistance by the Belgians, the Romans became masters of the whole of Gaul, about the year 50 before Christ, and during the five centuries they occupied the country, erected many schools for the propagation of their religion, institutions, and language. We thus find in the fourth century, independent of the ancient schools of Marseilles and Autun, that most of the larger cities in Gaul had educational establishments of various kinds, especially at Lyons, which was the literary centre of Gaul, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Norbonne, and many other places. Among these schools, some had been established by the munificence of the emperors, others by the inhabitants of the cities themselves. There were also numerous free schools.

The imperial schools, (*auditoria.*) were to be found in the principal centres of population, and were intended for the higher studies. The professors were exclusively appointed by the emperor, and received a large salary. The students were under the superintendence of the city prefect, and a very strict discipline was maintained. In a code of laws of the year 370, we read: "The emperor requires of every student a certificate from the magistrate of his province, and that his name, his profession, his residence, be inscribed on the public register. He recommends that the young men do not waste their time in theatres and plays, and that their education be finished at the completion of their twentieth year. He charges the city prefect with the superintendence of the students; this magistrate has full authority to punish the idle and negligent, and to draw up an annual report."

The Roman power, which had for a century been growing weaker and weaker, was at last completely overthrown by Clovis, king of the Franks, at the battle of Soissons, in 486; and the countries now called France and Belgium, as also some parts of western Germany, formed one empire, the empire of the Franks.

Christianity had already taken root in many parts of this dominion, but without any legal sanction. Clovis, however, soon after his accession to the throne, adopted the christian religion; and it can truly be said, that when he and three thousand of his nobles bent the knee before the cross, in the cathedral of Rheims, on Christmas-day, and were baptised by St. Remi, they determined the destinies of the world. In exchange for the moral and religious faith which they received, they placed at the service of christianity, all the strength of a young nation, that had not yet been corrupted by the depraved morals of the Byzantine empire.

As in all the newly-christianized countries, the education of youth formed one of the most important branches of the clergy's activity, and with every new church and monastery, a school was also established. With regard to these schools, Ozanam, in his *History of Christian Civil-*

zation, says: "The monasteries of this time, some with a population of three hundred to five hundred monks, were like fortresses, arresting the incursions of the heathen tribes; they were immovable colonies in the midst of the moving population; they were schools of sacred and profane science, as well as of industry and agriculture."

The successors of Clovis, the Merovingian kings, gradually lost their power, and in 752, Pepin sent the last of that race, Childerich III., into a convent, and with the consent of the pope, declared himself king of the Franks. He was the first of the famous race of the Carolingians, and his son was Charlemagne, who, at the death of his brother Carloman, found himself sole ruler of the vast monarchy of the Franks, extending from the river Eider to the Ebro and the Tiber, and from the ocean to the river Theiss in Hungary.

Charlemagne not only conquered all these countries in order to keep them as useful vassals in case of war, and to increase his fame, wealth, and power, but he likewise made great exertions to civilize the people by giving them a good education. Charles himself commenced to study, when already more than forty years of age, and thus set his whole people a good example. He surrounded himself with a number of eminent learned men, such as Alcuin and Eginhard. At his court he established the so-called palace-school, (*école palatine*), which accompanied him wherever he went, and served as a seminary and a model for the many schools which at his command were founded throughout his vast empire. He frequently visited the schools himself and personally satisfied himself of the progress made by the scholars.

The most famous schools in Belgium, during this and the succeeding reigns, were those at Liège, Lobbes, and Gembloux. They were destroyed by the Normans, who ravaged the coasts of western Europe, and in many cases penetrated far into the interior, but were again re-established about the year 971, by the strenuous exertions of bishop Notger. The Belgian provinces at that period formed part of Lorraine, one of the three portions into which the empire of Charlemagne had been divided, at the treaty of Verdun, among his three grandsons.

The most characteristic feature of the Belgian schools during the tenth and eleventh centuries, was their extreme orthodoxy; but notwithstanding this, science flourished under the direction of bishops Notger, Durand, Wazon, and others, so that not without reason this period has been called the golden age of the Netherlands. The crowds of scholars which at that time flocked to the school at Liège, has by one of the writers of the period, been compared to the swarms of bees which in summer hover round the blossoming shrubs. Liège was called the Athens of the North, and when Wazon died, the following epitaph was inscribed on his tombstone: "*Ante ruel mundus quam surgat Wazo secundus.*"—(The world will die before a second Wazon appears.)

Other very famous schools existed in the Monastery of Saint Froud and of Saint Hubert, where all the sciences and arts were taught; special atten-

attention being given to sculpture, painting, and music. The writing was done on parchment, for the preparation of which there were special workshops in every convent; wax tablets and the bark of trees were also employed; the price of books was of course very high. Thus we read that the Countess Grecoë d'Anjou paid for one copy of the Homilies of Haimon of Halberstadt, two hundred sheep, five quarters of wheat, as many of rye and millet, and a number of sable-skins.

The consequence was, that most of the instruction was given orally, and on the walls were frequently hung up great parchments, representing in the shape of a tree the history and genealogy of the Old Testament, the catalogue of virtues and vices, &c. Numerous monks were employed in each convent in copying carefully books of every imaginable kind, and libraries were formed, small if compared with the immense collections of books to be found in our great cities, but of the greatest value in those ages, since they formed the armories from which new weapons were constantly supplied for the warfare waged against darkness and ignorance. Each cathedral-school had such a library, very appropriately called "armorium." One of the most important was that of Gembloux, with upwards of one hundred and fifty volumes.

For a long time Belgium had no university of its own, and all who wished to enjoy the benefit of a university-education, went to foreign countries, chiefly to France. The organization of the universities, and particularly that of Paris, had greatly diminished the attendance at the cathedral and convent-schools, and thus we find, that in the thirteenth century, only a few of these establishments were yet in operation. The clergy were so much occupied with their temporal affairs, that the severe discipline of the convents began to disappear.

These circumstances, as well as the foundation of numerous colleges, which attracted the whole of the lay youth, gave the last blow to the ancient schools, and especially to the convent-schools. The cathedral-schools were then exclusively reserved for the instruction of ecclesiastics, and for the mass of the lay population the so-called "chapter-schools" and primary schools, (*écoles capitrales* and *écoles inférieures*,) were founded.

The Lateran council of 1215 issued the following decree: "As the Church of God, like a good mother, considers it her duty to see that the children of the poor are not deprived of the advantages of education, every cathedral is to have a teacher who will gratuitously instruct the poor children." This decree was also carried out in Belgium, where about this time we find the following schools: "chapter-schools" or great schools, chiefly attended by the children of the burghers and well-to-do tradesmen, and the "primary schools" or little schools, for the children of the poor.

In several parts of the country, and especially in the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders, the supreme authority in educational matters belonged to the Duke or Count, and the immediate superintendence of each school was in the hands of a schoolmaster nominated either by the

sovereign or by the chapter. At the head of the "great schools" there were rectors. The rectors and schoolmasters appointed the sub-rectors for the "little schools." The administration of the school was managed simultaneously by the chapter, the schoolmasters, and the magistrate. In the country districts the schools were mostly kept by the clergymen. All these regulations apply to a great many cases, but there was no uniform legislation; everything depended on the customs, varying in each province and each town or village. But this is certain, that the feudal lords reserved to themselves all authority in educational matters, which led to frequent disputes with the clergy. The course of studies in the "little schools" was limited to elementary knowledge and the introduction to Donatus, whilst in the "great schools" it comprised morals, grammar, and music.

Towards the end of the fourteenth century (1384) Belgium became part of the dominions of the Dukes of Burgundy. Of these, Philip the Good especially did much for education by founding new schools and libraries. About this time, also, there flourished in Belgium, the so-called "chambers of rhetoric," (*chambres de rhétorique*), whose members belonging mostly to the burghers and artisans, practised declamation and cultivated poetry. The names of most of these institutions indicated their poetical character. The most ancient of them called itself "the book," another one was called "the corn-flower," "the violet," "the fleur de lys." The two last mentioned united towards the end of the fifteenth century, under the name, "the garland of Mary." Similar institutions were found in all the Belgian cities; they organized amongst themselves public festivals, consisting of dramatic representations and dialogues, generally on religious subjects, such as, "The first joy of Mary," "The play of the holy sacrament," &c., but also with titles such as, "How one can meet joyously and part in friendship." Taken as a whole, these festivals were the commencement of dramatic art, but they likewise had a certain influence on manners, and stimulated the intellectual taste. There were also questions given to be answered by competitive discourses. Among these questions we find the following: "*Why does peace, though so ardently desired, delay its appearance?*" "*What ought to be the greatest consolation of a dying man?*" "*Which is better, peace or war?*" The society which gained the prize, had the right to propose another question in its turn. The prizes generally consisted of silver cups. Often there were two prizes given, one for a French discourse, and another for a Flemish one. On account of their usefulness these societies enjoyed certain advantages and special privileges. Thus they received on certain days a subsidy from the magistrate. They frequently acted as the mouth-piece of public opinion, and in a bold and spirited manner subjected the measures of the government to a bitter criticism, and for this reason they were finally suppressed.

The Dukes of Burgundy occupied the country for about a century, and during their rule the famous University of Louvain was founded, (in 1426,) which for a long time enjoyed a wide-spread reputation, and was attended by 6,000 students, from all parts of Europe.

During the fifteenth century, so rich in new inventions and discoveries, most of the nations of Europe made great progress in all the branches of intellectual activity. The study of the ancient classics was revived, and just at that time Gutenberg discovered the means of multiplying indefinitely the masterpieces of Greek and Roman literature and learning. This did not remain without influence on Belgium, and it is a noteworthy fact, that here were not only found learned men, whose names shed an immortal lustre on the country that produced them, but that education was not, as in most other European countries, confined to the rich and the noble, but that even the poorest could share in its benefits. Elementary schools for all classes of society were numerous, excellent, and well-conducted, and it would have been difficult to find a man who could neither read nor write, and who did not know the rudiments of grammar, while in the cities many were to be found who could speak two or three languages.

From the dominion of the Dukes of Burgundy, the Netherlands passed into that of the house of Hapsburg, towards the beginning of the sixteenth century, as the Emperor Maximilian, through his wife the Duchess of Burgundy, inherited all these countries. His grandson was Charles V., born at Ghent in the year 1500, who was declared of age in 1516, and thus found himself, at the early age of sixteen, king of Spain, Naples, Sicily, the two Indias, and sovereign of the Netherlands, and three years later, by the death of Maximilian, emperor of Germany. The brightest gem in his crown was without doubt the Netherlands; here were large and populous cities, centers of European commerce and manufactures; here arts and sciences flourished, so as to rival even the famous court of the Mediceans at Florence. The contemporary writers cannot speak highly enough of the immense wealth and intellectual culture of the Netherlands at this time. The innate liberal spirit of the inhabitants naturally prompted them soon to embrace the new religious doctrines of the Reformation, for which the way had been prepared by the writings of Erasmus; and in spite of all ordinances against the new doctrines, they soon found their way into most of the schools of the country, but whilst in the northern provinces, (at present Holland,) the *religious* ideas of the Reformation took firm root, in the southern provinces, (Belgium,) *political* liberty was placed in the foreground.

During the reign of Charles V. no very violent means were employed to check this growing spirit of independence, because the attention of the emperor was so much occupied by the affairs of his German and Italian provinces, and by various foreign wars. The liberty of teaching, however, which had hitherto existed, was entirely taken away, and teachers were henceforth required to have a certificate from the clergyman of their town, stating their good character, their orthodoxy, and their fidelity to the Roman religion. The number of schools and scholars consequently diminished rapidly. One of the writers of the period says: "It is sufficient to examine the books that were placed in the hands of the children, and the bigoted exercises which they had to go through, to find

the cause, why a people, that once ranked first amongst the civilized nations, was brought to such a state of ignorance." This reaction against all intellectual development in the lower classes, soon bore its fruits; half a century sufficed to destroy the edifice built up by many generations. On the 25th October, 1555, Charles the Fifth, tired of the cares and troubles of an imperial crown, publicly abdicated at Brussels, in favor of his son, Philip II., and retired to the Spanish convent of St. Juste.

Philip II., who had been brought up in Spain, had no love for the Belgians, and this absence of affection was mutual. Educated by the Jesuits, he had become most intolerant in his religious views, and at the same time a despotic monarch, endowed with a sombre character and a thoroughly Spanish pride, which led him to despise everything foreign, and every new and reformatory measure. In the most cruel manner the political and religious liberties of the Belgians were oppressed. Long and sanguinary was the war waged by the inhabitants of the country against their foreign oppressors, which was finally ended by the declaration of independence of the northern part of the Netherlands, under the title of the Seven United Provinces, whilst in the southern portion the Spaniards maintained themselves.

The result of these long wars, and the final victory of the Spaniards in Belgium, may well be imagined; and more than in any other sphere it showed itself in that of education, which was placed almost entirely in the hands of the clergy. This applies chiefly to the instruction of the children of the common people, though the evil influence of this state of affairs also showed itself to some extent at the higher schools and the universities. Elementary instruction was almost entirely confined to prayers and the little catechism. The attendance at the Sunday schools was made obligatory for children and servants, and a dereliction from this rule was punished in the most cruel manner.

For a short time Belgium formed an independent Duchy, under the rule of Archduke Albert and his wife Isabella, daughter of Philip II., but as they had no children, the country again reverted to Spain in the beginning of the seventeenth century. In the frequent wars between France, Spain, and Holland, Belgium was generally the seat of the war, and in most cases, peace was concluded at Belgium's expense.

After the peace of Utrecht in 1713, which terminated the war of the Spanish succession, it was ceded to Austria, and for a number of years again enjoyed the blessings of peace, a mild government, and consequent state of prosperity. The brightest period of the Austrian rule, was the reign of the Empress Maria Theresa, who ascended the throne in 1740. This noble-minded woman devoted her attention, above everything else, to the education of the people,* which, during the last two centuries, had been almost entirely neglected. The University of Louvain was completely reorganized, and in order to give a national character to supe-

* For a brief notice of the educational work of the Empress Maria Theresa, see *Studies in German Education, and School Codes of different countries.*

rior education, every young Belgian who wished to study at a university, was by law obliged to attend, at least for a certain number of years, the university of his native country, and not to go abroad.

The government which Belgium had had during the last two centuries, fearing that a general system of public education would strengthen the innate spirit of liberty and love of independence of the Belgians, had done as little for education as they possibly could; this great task was, therefore, reserved for the Empress Maria Theresa. As regards secondary instruction, it was not only reorganized, but completely created anew. One of the first measures taken was to expel the Jesuits. This measure, though very beneficial in many respects, occasioned a considerable void in the educational system of the country. The government now wrote to the magistrates of the cities and provinces, and to the clerical authorities, to contribute towards the general welfare of the country by communicating their views on the subject, and by recommending suitable candidates for the vacant places. In the circular issued by the Empress, she says, "that on account of the solicitude she felt for all her subjects, she would not only try to provide abundantly for the instruction and education of the inhabitants of Belgium, but also to perfect the system of education and bring about a return of those happy times, when there was no lack of excellent teachers, and sciences and literature were cultivated with an almost universal emulation and success.

A royal "Board of Studies," (*commission royale des études*,) was established at Brussels. Its first work was to found, at the expense of the public treasury, establishments called *Theresian Colleges*, in the different centers of population, and considerable sums were devoted to the improvement of the existing colleges. All these institutions were placed under the superintendence of the bishops and magistrates, the supreme authority being retained in the hands of the government, which appointed all the directors and professors. The vacancies were publicly announced, and candidates had to pass a competitive examination, the results of which exposed the profound ignorance of a large number of the candidates, though they had graduated and obtained degrees.

The Board also turned its attention to the editions of the classics. Here also great reforms had to be made, and immense gaps to be filled; but this long, laborious and delicate task was performed with the most praiseworthy zeal and devotedness; most of the books were republished on a uniform plan and cleared of the mass of absurdities, wrong principles, and puerile definitions, with which they abounded; the new editions were of a more convenient size, and much less expensive than the old. The list of these works was sent to the directors of the various colleges, with the express injunction, not to use any other books.

In order to give durability to the reforms introduced, a code of rules and regulations and a programme of the course of studies was published, which, according to competent judges, show the wisdom and the liberal views of the government. By the first, all corporal punishments were

forbidden in the schools, and by the second, the range of studies was considerably extended. The zeal of the pupils and professors was to be stimulated by public examinations, in place of the former useless theatrical representations, and whilst modifying the system of punishments, a scale of suitable rewards was also established. The scholar who gained a prize was publicly decorated with a silver medal, on which the image of Maria Theresa was engraved. There was a special order regulating the instruction in the native language, Flemish, French, and German, according to the different provinces. In order finally to facilitate the uninterrupted course of studies, the number of arbitrary holidays, which had been very large, was greatly reduced.

Maria Theresa reigned forty-one years, and great and universal was the sorrow of the Belgians, when they learned her death. In the church of St. Gudule, at Brussels, a magnificent funeral service was held, and preachers, authors, and poets, emulated each other in celebrating her memory. The reign of Maria Theresa had revived all the sources of material and intellectual progress, and a new era of peace and prosperity had been inaugurated in Belgium, when Joseph II., her son, ascended the throne. This young monarch, unfortunately, did not introduce into the reformatory measures, which for a long time he had contemplated, in church and state, the foresight and moderation which had characterized those of the Empress. This was at first less the case with regard to education. He issued an order, that all children of soldiers should be gratuitously instructed, and by contributions and otherwise, encouraged the education of the poorer classes. A royal "Committee of Studies" was appointed, which had to examine the various schools and their systems, and report on them. The chief result was the establishment of two normal schools, one in Brussels and one in Luxemburg. Many other reforms were contemplated, and partly orders given to execute them. The great mistake of Joseph II., however, was, that he wanted to govern all the states of his vast empire according to uniform laws, without paying any regard to the difference of manners and customs. He took from the provincial parliament the right to vote subsidies, and, by the celebrated edicts of 1786 and 1787, brought things to a climax. The edict of 1786 established a general seminary at Louvain, with a branch establishment at Luxemburg, and obliged all young men who intended to enter a religious order, to pursue their studies at these institutions. The edicts of 1787 changed entirely the whole administrative, political, and judiciary organization of the country. These measures at last roused the whole nation; an army was collected and the Austrians defeated at Turnhout and Ghent, and January 11, 1789, the independence of the United States of Belgium was proclaimed.

Soon after the death of Joseph II., in 1790, the French revolution broke out, and soon spread its influence to this country; and on the 1st October, 1795, after having for several years formed the battleground for the contending armies of the Austrians and the French, Belgium was united to France by a decree of the National Convention. Liberty of teaching

was now of course fully guaranteed, and many schools were established after the French model, and many crude plans of changing the system of education were contemplated, but soon overthrown again by the rapid changes in the government of the new Republic, which during the last years of its existence was only a republic in name.

In the year 1804, this unsatisfactory state was brought to an end, when Napoleon Bonaparte crowned himself Emperor of the French and successor of Charlemagne, in the ancient cathedral of Notre Dame at Paris. Belgium formed a province of the new empire, and its system of education was completely remodeled on the French imperial plan.

In 1814, by the treaty of Paris, Belgium was again united to Holland. Societies were formed at that time to encourage public elementary instruction. These societies not only encouraged and aided primary schools, but also adult schools and Sunday schools, and a beginning was made in establishing the "*écoles gardiennes*," institutions destined for children of the tenderest age. In 1817 a normal school was established at Liège, whose graduates helped to break up the antiquated routine of the country schools, and replace it by rational and pleasing methods of instruction. In 1822 all persons were forbidden to exercise the functions of a schoolmaster in the higher branches of public schools, who were not authorized by a central board of examination. A thorough system of inspection, reports, and full publicity, was instituted.

Whatever may be said against the political course of the Dutch government, it cannot be denied that it was during its supremacy that public primary schools worthy of the name, were established in Belgium. From 1817 to 1828, there had been built or repaired 1,146 school-houses, and 668 teachers' dwellings; 1,977 male and 168 female teachers had been examined and had received certificates of qualification, and the number of scholars in the public schools had increased from 153,000 to 248,000. In the year 1830 the number of schools was 4,046, and the number of scholars 293,000, (157,000 boys and 136,000 girls.)

With regard to educational efforts and results, Belgium certainly had no reason to complain of the Dutch government. Political reasons, however, led to the revolution of 1830, by which Belgium was finally separated from Holland, and established, with the consent of the great powers of Europe, as an independent country. After various changes, the law of 1842 was finally adopted, which forms the basis of the present system of public instruction in Belgium. We will give the condition of the system in 1850, and in 1868.

OUTLINE OF SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN 1850.

The system of public instruction in Belgium in 1850, was as follows:

(1.) Primary schools, including day schools for children of the usual school age in other countries, infant schools or asylums, and Sunday schools and evening schools for adults whose early education has been neglected.

(2.) Superior primary or high schools, in all the large towns.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN DENMARK.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

THE early history of Denmark, transmitted to us in the old sagas, is almost entirely mythical. All we know with certainty is that Jutland and the Danish islands were inhabited by a fierce and warlike tribe of the Goths, calling themselves Danes or Normans, who through their plundering expeditions became the terror of all the southern and western coasts of Europe. They formed a number of small governments, which were first united into one by king Gorm the Old (died in 936 A. D.,) who thus became the founder of the Danish monarchy. In 965, his son Harald embraced the Christian religion, which was soon introduced throughout the whole kingdom. The power of the Danish kings gradually extended to other countries, and reached its greatest height under Canute (Knud) the Great (1024,) who ruled over England, Denmark, Norway, and Southern Sweden. England, however, soon regained its independence, and numerous civil wars weakened the strength of the kingdom. Another brilliant period was the reign of Valdemar I (1157–1182) and Valdemar II (1201–1241,) who conquered Mecklenburg, Holstein, Pomerania, and all the present Baltic provinces of Russia. This period, however, was very brief. Worthless kings followed, civil wars broke out, and almost the whole kingdom was conquered by Count Gerhard of Holstein. It seemed as if Denmark's last hour had come; but in the person of the Jutland knight, Niels Ebbesen, the most popular hero of Danish history, there arose a liberator who killed Gerhard and expelled the foreigners.

In 1397, Queen Margaret concluded the so-called Calmar union, uniting Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, which lasted only a short time. During the reign of Christian III, the doctrines of Luther's Reformation found their way to Denmark, and were soon introduced throughout the whole kingdom. In 1660, Denmark lost Southern Sweden, which was ceded to Sweden; in 1814, Norway was transferred to Sweden; and after the unfortunate war of 1864 against Austria and Prussia, the three Duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg, were ceded to Prussia, thus reducing the area of the kingdom to 14,553 English square miles (exclusive of Iceland, the Færöer, and the Colonies,) with a population of about 1,800,000.

The present constitution of Denmark, embodied in the charter of June

5, 1849, and revised in September, 1865, is one of the most liberal in Europe. Through its beneficial influence the consequences of the last disastrous wars are scarcely felt, the finances are in a sound condition, the rich resources of the country are more and more developed, and education, science, literature, and the fine arts, are flourishing to a degree which might well put to shame many a larger country.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Prior to the Reformation, there was no regular system of public instruction, although there was no want of schools, not only in all the convents, but likewise in the larger towns. As early as the 12th century, mention is made of schools in Lund and Viborg. During the 13th century, they were founded in Odense and Ribe, and in the year 1340 in Copenhagen. These schools were called "Latin schools," but were by no means restricted to young men who wished to follow a clerical career. For Latin in those days was the indispensable language for all higher trades, and these schools consequently served both as gymnasia and as real-schools. It seems, however, that besides these schools, there were other schools in some of the towns, as there is a church-ordinance from the times of the Reformation, ordering that all such schools shall be abolished and the children placed in the Latin schools; but in the country there were certainly no schools whatever.

The Church-reformers devoted much attention to education. The higher schools in the towns were reorganized and well endowed, and a lower grade of Latin schools were instituted in all towns, corresponding to the burgher-schools of a later day, and which the children from the country were allowed to attend. Besides these schools, which were under the supervision of the clergy, there were in the chief towns "writing-schools" (*Skriveskoler*), for boys and girls and others, who were not prepared to learn Latin, under the care of the municipal authorities.

In 1683, the custom of employing pupils of the highest class of the Latin school to act as sextons, was abolished, and special sextons were appointed, with a fixed salary, who lived near the church. Students of theology had the preference for these places, and one of their chief duties was to give instruction in religion to the school children once a week. This instruction, according to the old Danish church-historian Pontopidan, "consisted in the sexton's gathering the youth of the parish once a week at one of the largest residences, where they repeated the catechism after him till they knew it by heart, and the whole was wound up with a good hearty meal, and plenty to drink."

Early in the 18th century, various efforts were made to improve public instruction, chiefly in the towns. Under the lead of Magister F. Thesstrup, who began his career in Copenhagen in 1702, and who died as bishop in Aalborg, six parish-schools were established in Copenhagen. But even in the country, some of the more enlightened noblemen and landed proprietors commenced about this time to establish schools at

their own expense, and obliged their tenants to send their children to school. After the peace of Fredericksborg (1720,) which brought to an end a long period of wars, Frederick IV found time and resources for internal improvements and education. He ordered the erection on the royal domains of two hundred and forty school houses, each containing a dwelling for the teacher, with a room for the school. These houses were so well built, that most of them are in use at the present day. By a decree of March, 1721, regulations for the internal organization of these schools were given and the salary of teachers fixed. The obligatory studies were simply religion and reading, but if the parents desired it, children were instructed in writing and arithmetic, for which a small extra sum was paid, mainly to buy writing materials. Children were required to attend school from their fifth to their eighth year, every day for five or six hours; and from their eighth year only half a day. All private schools were placed under the inspection of the clergyman.

These measures did not institute a general system of public instruction, for the king did not act in his capacity as head of the State, but as a private landed proprietor; but his example was followed by many other landed proprietors, who established similar schools on their possessions.

Christian VI (1730-1746) first introduced a general system of public instruction. By a decree of January 23, 1739, it was ordained that schools be established in every village, except that several small villages might have one in common. The schoolmaster was to be examined by the clergyman before entering upon his duties, and must be found qualified to impart instruction in religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic. All parents were obliged to send their children to school from their fifth or sixth year. The supervision of the schools was placed in the hands of the clergyman and the bishop. In every parish-school, a revenue was created, to be increased by collections, fines, gifts, and a fixed school-tax. The money was applied first to buying text-books and writing-material, and then to the teacher's salary. If this was not sufficient, the remainder was raised by a reassessment on the whole diocese. The minimum salary was fixed at twelve rix-dollars per annum, besides free fuel, a sufficient quantity of corn, and hay for two cows. The schoolmaster was authorized to take an entrance-fee of four skillings from every child, and two skillings per week from the children of parents able to pay. During the same year (1739) about thirty Latin schools in the smaller towns were abolished and their property used for improving the common Danish schools. These measures met with great opposition from the nobility and the landed proprietors, and in many cases they could not be carried out; and in the year following (April, 1740) a new decree was promulgated, leaving it entirely with the landed proprietors to decide what kind and how many schools should be established on their property, and to fix the teacher's salary. The additional tax on the whole diocese was abolished. Each school was authorized to have its own district fund, to

be managed by the wealthiest landed proprietor. The consequence was that in many places the salaries were very small, and that discarded footmen, old soldiers, shoemakers and tailors filled most of the teachers' places. This state of affairs continued till the end of the 18th century.

The French Revolution of 1789 made its influence felt in Denmark; more liberal ideas gained ground, and Frederick VI (regent since 1784, king 1808–1839) was the first to welcome and apply them to the education of youth. In 1789, a committee was appointed to administer the schools and draw up a plan for their improvement. This committee submitted, July 29, 1814, a new school-law, which was promulgated, and in its main features is in force at the present day. In the country, in every neighborhood, elementary schools, each of two classes, were to be established; wherever a village was too poor to maintain a teacher alone, the children should be sent to the nearest school; and where a village was too large, a second school was to be instituted. In every town an elementary burgher-school was to be established, and wherever it was possible, also higher burgher or real-schools, as well as evening-classes for adults and for female industries. To supply qualified teachers, Seminaries were established, the first in 1791 at Ionstrup, in Zealand; and afterwards four more were erected, at Skaarup in Fyen, at Lyngby, Rarum and Jellinge, in Jutland. The attendance at school was made strictly obligatory, for the king wished "that in future there should not be a single human being in Denmark without religious knowledge, and who could not read a book, write a letter, and have some skill in arithmetic."

In 1819, the monitorial or Lancastrian method was introduced into the military school in Copenhagen by a young officer, Abrahamson, who had become acquainted with it in France. The king took great interest in the experiment, and in 1822 the method of mutual instruction was recommended for all elementary schools. The system was assailed by Diesterweg, and gradually fell into disuse or was greatly modified. In 1828, the subject of physical training was discussed, and soon after gymnastics were introduced into all the schools of the country, as one of the regular branches of instruction. By a royal ordinance of 1838, higher burgher-schools were to be established in all the towns; this measure was gradually carried out, and in 1850 there were, in forty-five out of the sixty-five towns of the kingdom, schools of this grade, besides the already existing elementary burgher-schools. Some years later, several of the high-schools (gymnasia) were changed into higher real-schools; this was done at Nyborg, Slagelse, Nakskov, Vordingborg, and Helsingør. Besides these, a higher real-school was established at Aarhus. Some slight modifications, specially with regard to the appointment of teachers, were made in 1856.

The first decade of the 19th century ushered in a new era in the inner history of Denmark. Out of the political misfortunes of the country a strong national feeling was born, which manifested itself first in poetry. Oehlenschlaeger, the greatest and most national of Danish poets, first

drew his inspiration from the glorious memories of the past and from the ancient sagas. A host of others in all departments of literature followed; a national school of art developed itself, as well in painting and sculpture as in music. The national feeling was wrought up to the highest point by the first war with Germany (1848–1850,) and the last disastrous war in 1864 has not diminished its intensity. This whole movement could not remain without influence on the schools and education of youth. Instruction in the history and geography of the North (specially Denmark, as well as of Sweden and Norway) was introduced into all the schools; numerous libraries, chiefly devoted to national literature, were established all over the country, and under the name of “peasant high-schools” (*bondehoiskoler* or *folkehoiskoler*,) courses of lectures on history and literature were instituted at various places. At present the national feeling, particularly in the common schools, is frequently coupled with an intense hatred of every thing German or rather Prussian; but as years roll on, time will exercise its mellowing influence, the old strifes will be forgotten, and the two nations will learn to know and respect each other better. A great advance in this direction was made in 1869, at the annual session of the Archæological Congress, when two hundred *savants* from all parts of Europe, and amongst them many from Germany, assembled in Copenhagen; and all departed with an expression of the kindest feelings for Denmark and with clearer views of her national peculiarities, her political institutions, her literature and art, than had ever before been entertained.

PRESENT SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

1. *Primary Schools.*

The general supervision of primary schools is intrusted to the Ministry of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs. The whole country is divided for ecclesiastical purposes into seven dioceses, each with a bishop at the head, who also superintends the educational matters. He appoints all teachers in the country, whilst the teachers in the towns are appointed by the school-board of the “*amt*” (subdivision of the diocese.) The head-master of the elementary town-schools is appointed by the king.

The school-districts, each with its district school-board, are arranged as far as practicable so that no child has to walk further than one-fourth of a Danish mile to school; where the farm-houses are very much scattered, the school is to be itinerant; that is, the schoolmaster has a fixed place of residence, but several school-rooms are provided in different parts of his district, at each of which he gives instruction in succession. The law provides that good and convenient roads must lead to every school, cleared of snow in winter, and constantly kept in repair, &c.

No child is admitted to school unless it has reached its sixth year; and only twice a year, viz., on the first days of May and December. The scholars are, according to their age and proficiency, divided into two classes. The hours of instruction are, from March 1 till October 31, from

8 till 11 A. M., and from 1 till 4 P. M.; from November 1 till February 28, from 9 to 12 A. M., and from 1 till 3 P. M. Each class attends school for three full days every week. Four weeks from the commencement of the harvest there is no school, in order that children may be free to assist in the harvest field. The scholars of the highest class are to attend school only two full days each week from the first of June till the beginning of harvest-time. Children who are suffering from any contagious disease are not allowed to attend school under any circumstances, and for three weeks even after their recovery. In case of failure to attend school, the parents or guardians of the children are fined by the district school-board, the fine increasing from three skillings to twenty-four skillings for repeated failures. Parents are allowed to have their children educated at home by private tutors, who can, after examination, satisfy the school-board of their competency.

The course of instruction embraces reading, writing, arithmetic, religion, and gymnastics. Twice a year a public examination is held in presence of the district school-board. No child is admitted to confirmation until found to possess the requisite school instruction at the public examination. Parents or guardians who keep their children at home without a valid excuse, must pay a fine of two marks up to one dollar, Danish money. Children already confirmed, who wish to continue their studies, receive, during the winter, instruction in writing, reading, arithmetic, or other subjects, twice a week in the evening. If the children are not cleanly in their person or dress, their parents or guardians are held responsible, and for continuous disregard of their duty in this respect, must pay a fine of from four to eight skillings. All forms of corporal punishment are abolished.

The supervision of public instruction in the country is for each *Amt* in the hands of the school-board, consisting of the *Amt-man* and clerical superintendent. This board meets quarterly at the house of the *Amt-man*. For each parish there is a school-board, consisting of the clergyman, who is the chairman, and all the school patrons in the parish. School patrons are those who possess a certain landed interest within the school-district. The school directors are chosen by the *Amt* of the school-board, from among the most prominent farmers in the parish, and hold their office for two years. No one can become a schoolmaster unless he has reached his twenty-first year, and can produce the certificate of possessing the requisite qualifications. Whenever a vacancy occurs, the authorities notify the superintendents of Teachers' Seminaries, giving an exact account of the place and its income, who in turn notify all graduates who may at that time be out of employment; and from their credentials a choice is made by the local school-board.

The special school-fund of every parish consists of: (1) the so-called church candle-money—the collection which on two fixed Sundays in the year is made in the church; (2) free gifts; (3) all fines. The money is first applied by the parish school-board to providing the necessary text-

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN RUSSIA.

AREA—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE comprises one-seventh of the territorial extent of the globe, and about one twenty-sixth part of its entire surface. But the superficial extent of the empire has never been determined with accuracy. A topographical survey made during the years 1865-66, and embracing the provinces of *Russia in Europe*, shows the total area of the same to be 90,117 geographical square miles, or 1,992,574 English square miles, exclusive of the Grand Duchies of Finland and Poland. The area of the whole Russian empire has been estimated at 343,240 geographical square miles, or 7,612,874 English square miles.

The population of the whole Russian empire, in 1858, was 73,992,378. A later census was made for European Russia, Poland, and Finland, in 1864. According to this, the total population of Russia in Europe amounted to 61,061,801; of Finland, to 1,798,909; and of Poland to 5,336,210 souls, giving a total, for the European portion of the empire, of 68,196,920 inhabitants.

The government of Russia is an absolute hereditary monarchy. The whole legislative, executive, and judicial power is united in the Emperor, whose will alone is law. The administration of the empire is intrusted to four great boards or councils, possessing separate functions, but centering in the "private cabinet of the Emperor:" (1,) The Council of the Empire, established in 1810; its chief function is that of superintending the general administration; (2,) the directing Senate, established in 1711, being the Supreme Court of Justice for the empire; (3,) the "Holy Synod," to which is committed the superintendence of the religious affairs, and (4,) the "Council of Ministers," divided into 12 departments.

The established religion of the empire is the Greco-Russian; but with the exception of the restraint laid on the Jews, who are excluded from Russia proper, almost all religions may be freely professed any where in the empire.

Although the great preponderating race in the heart of European Russia is homogeneous, the various populations included in the circuit of the Russian empire represent many nationalities and tribes, each with its hereditary customs, languages, and dialects—making all efforts to introduce a uniform municipal administration, on which a truly national system of education must rest, more than usually difficult. The fixed relations of the laboring population to the soil, and its pecuniary dependence on the

nobles and the crown, which no degree of intelligence, diffused by schools or self-culture, could surmount, made the work of popular education, till quite recently, almost hopeless. But the imperial decree of March 8, 1861, which came into final execution two years later, (March 8, 1863,) by which 22,000,000 of serfs, of both sexes, belonging to private owners, and many more crown peasants, were emancipated under certain conditions, was followed in 1864-65 by vigorous measures to establish a system of public instruction, coextensive with the limits of the empire and the various wants of all classes of the population. By these related measures, the productive labor of the country will be largely increased, as well as varied and improved, and the capacity of the people for municipal institutions will be almost created.

In the following account of the system of public instruction in Russia, including the earlier as well as the most recent efforts of the government in this direction, we have followed almost literally Beer & Hochegger's "*Die Fortschritte des Unterrichtswesens in den Cultur-staaten Europas*. Vienna, 1868."

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

"Give me the school, and I will change the world!" have been the golden words the Russian statesmen of our days seem to have fully understood. If the political reforms in Russia, inaugurated by the present Emperor, Alexander II, during the last ten years, have justly attracted the attention of the statesmen, then certainly the well directed activity of his government to enlarge and improve the whole system of public instruction, so as to meet the demands of our present age, merit the unconditional admiration of educators throughout the world. The work was commenced in earnest only during the last few stormy years, although since the beginning of the century, sporadic improvements of the existing institutions had been attempted, with partial success. The principles on which the present reforms are based, merit, in more than one respect, the attention of every school-man, and may justly be considered as a triumph of western culture. The difficulties to be conquered were not few nor slight, but in most cases they have been victoriously overcome. The educational institutions of the most civilized nations have been carefully studied, and those systems have been adopted which had the unanimous approval of the most prominent school-men of different countries. If, in theory, various things are still to be desired, and if, in reality, much would not even satisfy moderate demands, we must take into consideration the intrinsic difficulties of the undertaking, and the vast field over which the labor must extend, and remember that time alone can consummate laws into habits. A desire for education must first be awakened generally in the nation, and instead of the usual training of a few for some special practical sphere, a more rational and more general order of studies must be introduced. The official Russian report says: "More than ever it has become an urgent necessity to prepare men for every sphere of usefulness opened to the human mind. In order that every one may

make a rational use of his rights, he must become conscious of their proper limits; a love of study must be awakened, and every one should be thoroughly imbued with the necessary degree of self-respect and of respect for other men. Only on these conditions can the present isolation of the different classes of society be broken up, and a rational distribution of the various occupations of life among all citizens take place." We see from this that the government has boldly undertaken to accomplish a noble work; the mere attempt is worthy of acknowledgment, and only the most energetic activity and persevering efforts will enable them to reach this end. To carry out in full the measures which the government has inaugurated, will require a long time and many coöperating efforts. Only on these conditions will it at last become possible to draw the Russian nation into the circle of the other cultivated nations of Western and Central Europe, and to build up a new political structure on a firm foundation.

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The first school in Russia was established in 1017, at Kiew, by Vladimir the Great, for the instruction of the clergy, and placed under the care of the bishop. A few years later, (1081,) Jaraslaff, the son of Vladimir, established a school at Novgorod for the education of three hundred sons of the clergy and nobility. The following directions are handed down as having been given by the bishop of Kiew, to the masters of his schools—and, whether so given or not, are worthy of the serious attention of every teacher:

Instruct the children in truth and virtue, in book science, good manners, and charity; in the fear of the Lord, which is the beginning of wisdom, and in purity and humility. Instruct them not in anger and severity, but with joy and affectionate treatment—with sweet precepts and gentle consolation, that they may neither become weary nor weak. Teach them diligently and frequently; and give them tasks according to their powers, so that they may not faint and droop; but above all things, instruct them assiduously out of the law of the Lord, for the advantage of both soul and body; and restrain them from foolish and improper language.

The commencement of educational establishments in Russia is generally traced back to the founder of the present Russian empire, Peter the Great, but this is not correct. That great monarch no doubt conceived large plans; but to carry them out, nearly every thing was wanting—teachers and pupils. It is far easier to create a navy or an army, than to impress the great mass of a people with the importance of education, and the benefits they will derive from it. Peter desired to transplant Western culture to Russia, and for this purpose sent Russians to foreign countries and called foreigners to Russia, but the great mass of the people was not essentially benefited by this. An institution was started at St. Petersburg for young noblemen, to prepare them for the civil service; naval and military academies were founded; even the local authorities were ordered to establish elementary-schools in every town (Decree of Jan. 16, 1721,) and where children of all classes should be instructed

free of charge. The sixth part of all the revenues of the monasteries, and the third part of all ecclesiastical revenues, were to be devoted to this purpose. The prescribed course of studies was somewhat remarkable, and in its way a true reflection of the spirit of the times. It comprised grammar, compositions on geographical and historical subjects, arithmetic and geometry, logic, dialectics, rhetoric and poetry, physics and metaphysics, politics after Puffendorf, and theology. If teachers of Hebrew and Greek could be found, these two languages were to be taught likewise. All these measures looked very well on paper, but little was gained by them in reality, and they only showed the zeal of the government to make the Russians familiar with Western culture.

The Empress Anne forbade the advancement of any private soldiers or non-commissioned officers to a higher rank, who could not read or write, and for this purpose she established schools, where children of soldiers should be educated at the public expense. At Astrachan a school was founded for those Kalmuck children who had been converted to Christianity. Similar institutions were established for the Wotjocks, Mordevines, Tschuwasches, and Tartars. She ordered an annual report to be made out, giving the number of children attending these schools, and mentioning what trade or occupation each one followed after leaving school.

The first institutions, however, which really deserve to be called educational establishments, were founded during the reign of Catherine II. But here, likewise, we find more good intentions and resolutions than really practical measures. Elementary-schools were to be founded in all towns and populous villages, where children of all classes could be instructed, those of the poor gratis, those of the wealthier people for a moderate school-fee. The course of study was to embrace, besides religion, writing, reading, arithmetic, and drawing. All schools and educational establishments, with the exception of the Moscow University and the clerical schools, were placed under the superintendence of a special committee. A full plan of studies, worked out by Zewadowsky, Epinus, Pastukow, and the Austrian, Jankowitz, received the imperial sanction in 1786. Accordingly all public schools were divided into higher and lower; the lower schools consisted of two classes, in which the subjects above mentioned were to be taught. The instruction in the higher schools, to consist of four classes, was to embrace the following subjects: Catechism, Biblical history, general history, geography of Russia, mathematics, natural history, Russian, German, Latin, calligraphy, drawing, ethics. For the education of teachers, a normal gymnasium was established at St. Petersburg, which afterwards was changed into a pedagogical institution, and connected with the imperial Academy of Sciences. Catharine likewise founded schools for the sons of naval officers, for the education of good workmen and foremen in the arsenals at St. Petersburg, a school for sailors, a school of mining, and a commercial academy. The Ministry of Public Instruction was first created

by her, but the man whom she placed at the head of it was a soldier without much education.

The Emperor Paul, who took a great interest in all military matters, devoted special attention to the education of the children and orphans of soldiers; but he likewise, during his short reign, founded two new academies at St. Petersburg and Kasan, various seminaries for ministers of other denominations, and decreed that the university at Dorpat should be reorganized.

The efforts made by Alexander I, were dictated by a truly liberal spirit, at least during the first years of his reign. The outline of the system, such as it has existed up to the most recent time, dates from his reign. All the schools of the empire were divided into four classes: Parochial-schools, district-schools, gymnasiums, and universities. It must certainly be considered as a mistake that the committee, intrusted with the final organization, commenced its work with the universities before having procured competent men, or before having organized institutions where such might be educated. The roof of the building was finished, but the foundation was almost entirely wanting. The universities were intrusted with the local administration of the schools, which arrangement proved detrimental to both the schools and the universities. To supply the want of teachers for the lower and middle schools, a Normal school was founded, by transforming the Normal school of Catherine into a pedagogical institution (1819,) which at present is the University of St. Petersburg. Alexander likewise founded a number of special schools, such as the schools for pilots and naval architects, the commercial schools at Taganrog and Odessa, two forest-academies, and an agricultural college. Of greater influence for the future seemed to be the efforts of various communities and corporations, emulating the zeal of the government to diffuse education throughout the vast Russian empire. The merchants of Moscow founded a commercial academy, the nobility of Kiew, Volhynia, and Podolia, at their own expense, erected a lyceum at Krzemienitz; the nobility of the Ukraine contributed 400,000 rubles towards the foundation of a university at Kharkow, and the merchants of Kiew, not wishing to remain behind, gave 800,000 rubles for the same object; the counselor of State, Paul Demidoff, gave the university at Moscow half a million, contributed largely towards the foundation of schools in the governments of Kiew and Tobolsk, and finally made a donation of one million of rubles for the foundation of a high-school at Jaroslaw. A similar school was founded at Nischine by Prince Bezborodko.

The institutions founded during the reign of Alexander I, were continued under Nicholas I, who, it is well known, entered upon his reign with gloomy auspices; but the principles which guided the government in founding these various institutions were materially changed. When that wide-spread conspiracy, which had for its aim the transformation of Russia into one or several republics, was discovered, and thorough investigations made, it seemed that the lack of a certain national feeling had

been the fruitful source of much of the opposition raised against the government. An imperial manifesto said, with regard to this, that only a system of education that was specially adapted to the national character, and was based on religious, monarchical, and national foundations, could effectually eradicate "the tendency to hair-brained theories and utopian political systems, which begins with demoralization and ends in perdition." This was the stand-point from which a new statute was framed and sanctioned (1828) by the Emperor, a statute which regulated the system of education in Russia proper in the way in which it has existed up to the present time, whilst the Baltic provinces retained the statute framed for them by their governor, Prince Liewen, in the year 1820.

According to this new statute, the State was exclusively to be intrusted with the education of the people. The nobility and the officials, whose children formed the bulk of all the school-attending children, were chiefly aimed at, as by a careful supervision of all the studies, the spreading of revolutionary ideas could be prevented. Great difficulties were thrown in the way of such as wanted to employ a private tutor, who, in most cases, would be a foreigner, by forcing him to undergo a number of examinations. Private tutors were subject to the special supervision of the school-authorities; the marshal of the province had semi-annually to give an exact account of their method of teaching, the text-books used, and the number and progress of their pupils. Parents likewise were subjected to many inconveniences, and were heavily fined if they in any way had neglected to fulfill one of the many school-laws, to which new ones were constantly added. In this way the government hoped to make private instruction almost impossible, and make the attendance at the public schools larger.

The chief change in the public school system consisted in converting the general schools into class schools. The gymnasiums were to educate only children of the upper classes of society, the district-schools were intended for children of the lower officials and tradesmen, and the elementary-schools for the common people. The establishing of these last mentioned schools was left to each community, and as there was very little desire for any education whatever amongst the common people, their number remained comparatively small; whilst the government only devoted its attention to the higher schools. The system of "pensions" in the public schools was a suitable means of enabling noblemen and higher officials to get rid of all care regarding their children, an opportunity which most of them gladly seized, as the Russians as a nation have never shown much sense for domesticity and domestic education. In these public institutions the children were well cared for, and cleanliness and thorough order in every respect were the order of the day. A kind of military system was strictly carried out. Men who were thoroughly acquainted with these institutions have given us a fearful picture of them; one of them says: "The military discipline, which is strictly upheld, does not allow of any feeling of respect or kindness between teachers and scholars. It is only

upheld by constant terror, mostly by means of corporal punishments, and, as a consequence, the scholars will, as soon as an opportunity offers, rush into the wildest extremes. Teachers were sometimes whipped in the dark, scholars suspected of being spies were enticed into ambushes and even thrown out of windows. Vices of every kind were fearfully common; nearly all the pupils were given to self-pollution, and not a few to gambling, drinking, etc." These wants in the Russian school-system were well known, nevertheless parents would confide their children to the care of such institutions, because there were various advantages connected with them. Besides receiving an education without incurring any expense, the scholars were favored in many ways on leaving the school and entering either the civil or military service. The hollowness of the system was partly concealed from the public by outward show. Public examinations were held, where rewards, medals, etc., were distributed with a flourish of trumpets, and the Russian youth were thus from an early age initiated into a strict system of rank, which in after times would have a decided influence on their lives.

A supervision, entering into the most minute details, served to introduce a certain uniformity of the system, which to such a degree is perhaps not to be found any where, with the exception of France. Strict regulations are given to teachers and scholars, with regard to dress, wearing of the hair, etc.; to classify the moral and scientific progress, certain numbers and fractions were uniformly introduced; a number of officials of various grades superintended the teacher in the most narrow-minded manner; the government wanted to know every thing, even the private affairs of the teachers, and reports on the private property of teachers, with many similar accounts, went through all the various grades of supervising boards, with constantly increasing annotations and marginal notes.

When Count Sergius Uwarow was Minister of Public Instruction, (1833-1849,) the Russian system of instruction entered on a new phase, aiming at uniting the political interest with that of the National Greek Church. Different educational districts were created, the "curators" and their assistants were intrusted with the superintendence of all educational establishments within their district, and strict regulations given with regard to morals and discipline. Hitherto the general superintendence has been in the hands of the universities, but as the government did not think that these offered a sufficient guarantee for conducting the schools on the true national principle, it was given into the hands of the "curators." There certainly was an advantage in thus placing the superintendence in the hands of men specially designed for this purpose. The new regulation for the universities was sanctioned by the Emperor in the year 1835, and about the same time the nationalizing efforts of the government commenced. As regards the university at Dorpat, for instance, the regulation was made, that no one was to be admitted as a student who could not, in a rigorous examination, show a sufficient

knowledge of the Russian language. In the Baltic and Western provinces, in the Crimea and Bessarabia, great stress was laid on instruction in the Russian language, and scholars who, on finishing the course, distinguished themselves by a thorough knowledge of the same, were admitted into the fourteenth general "class of society," (*Rang-classe*), which in Russia proper was only done with those who could show a good knowledge of Greek. Private instruction was a subject which particularly engaged Uwarow's attention; no new private schools could be opened; the existing ones were placed under the supervision of watchful inspectors, of whom there were four in St. Petersburg and two in Moscow. Domestic instruction did not escape the tender care of the government, for a decree of July 1, 1834, gave private tutors the privilege of entering the government service, inducing them to further a national education, instead of the one hitherto imported by foreigners, and not in accordance with the ancient faith, laws, and customs of Russia.

We see that thus ample provision was made for placing education on a truly national basis, and the results were such as might be expected. There was little hope that the government would deviate in the slightest degree from the path once entered, during the reign of Nicholas I. The great defects of the system were frequently pointed out by men who had a thorough knowledge of educational matters, and a change was often recommended in the most urgent manner. It was clearly shown that the mass of the people remained in ignorance, as the government only bestowed some care on the middle and higher schools, and left the primary schools to themselves. The great mass of the Russian people, altogether under the influence of the orthodox Russian clergy, were certainly in this manner prevented from ever cherishing the least revolutionary ideas, which, in the interest of keeping up the system of serfdom, was a very important consideration.

The Emperor Alexander II, on coming to the throne, found a gigantic task waiting for him. The Crimean war had only just been ended, and the country was in a sad condition. Though the war with the Western powers had by no means exhausted the resources of the empire, it had brought to light fearful mismanagement in all branches of the administration, and had made it evident that a thorough reorganization was urgently needed. To reach this end, however, a number of trustworthy men were needed, willing to coöperate and use all their united strength in accomplishing this almost superhuman task. But how could such men be found amid the general corruption, and even if there were such, how could the measures be carried out which they might adopt? That, in spite of all the difficulties, many of which seemed actually insurmountable, the Emperor Alexander II, nevertheless, commenced the work boldly, will redound to his immortal glory. The first great step which he took was to give freedom to the serfs, and intimately connected with this glorious deed is the reformation of public instruction, at which he has been working incessantly for the last few years. Every thing is still

in a state of transition, but the beginning which has been made justifies the boldest hopes for the future. The rubbish of centuries has to be cleared away, and generations may pass away before the educational establishments of Russia will satisfy the demands of a modern civilized state; but the way in which this beginning has been made, deserves our highest admiration. The experience of other countries was made use of, and the best institutions of each gradually introduced. Much may be learned from the many programmes which the Russian government is trying to carry out, but more than any thing else, the fact that for all the various nations there is only one path that leads to true civilization, and that it is a wrong and short-sighted policy to create a separate system of education for each separate nation.

II. SCHOOL AUTHORITIES.

The general superintendence of all the educational establishments of the empire is intrusted to the Ministry of Public Instruction, although, as in some other countries, there are special schools which are under the superintendence of other ministries. In Russia the Academy of Arts is under the Minister of the Imperial Court, the Botanic Garden under the Minister of the Imperial Domains, the military schools under the Minister of War, the nautical schools under the Minister of Marine, the law schools under the Minister of Public Justice, the technological institution under the Minister of Finance, as likewise the academies of mining, the agronomical academy recently founded near Moscow, the forest academy, the horticultural academy, are under the Minister of Imperial Domains, etc. The Ministry of Public Instruction is composed of the minister, several counselors, a commission on elementary and one on higher education, and a publication committee.

The first minister was Count P. Sawadowsky, (1802–1810;) followed by Alexander Rasumowsky, (1810–1816;) Prince Alex. Golyzin, (1816–1824;) Admiral A. Schischkow (1824–1828;) Prince Carl Lieven, (1828–1833;) Count Sergius Uwarow, (1833–1849;) Prince Schirinski-Schichmatow, (1849–1853;) A. Norow, (1853–1858;) Jewgraf Kowalewsky, (1858–1861;) Admiral Count Putjatin; Alexander Wassiliewitsch Golownin, Tolstoy. For some time the minister had an assistant, to take his place in case of absence or sickness, but during the last years this office has been vacant.

The general school-board, founded in the year 1802, consisted of the "curators" of all the school-districts, who at that time had their permanent abode in St. Petersburg; the minister presided at its sessions, in which the most important educational matters were discussed; all its resolutions were immediately submitted to the Emperor for his sanction. The immediate superintendence of all the schools in a district formerly belonged to the universities, but in 1835 it was transferred to the curators, who in this way were obliged to take up their abode in the capital of each school-district. In order to fill the vacant seats in the general

school-board, persons were appointed, who for the greater part took no interest in educational affairs; no more regular sessions were held, and years frequently elapsed before all the members met in council. Their resolutions were first laid before the Council of the Empire and the Ministers' Committee, before they were submitted to the Emperor to receive his final sanction. The place of this board is now filled by the Ministers' Council. Its duties are the following: New institutions or important changes in the administration, amendments to laws and regulations, proposals for the foundation of new schools, the financial reports of the minister and of the various schools; in fact the settlement of all questions regarding the educational system of the empire, which the minister sees fit to submit to it. The "Committee on higher education," (*Das Gelehrte Comité*), existing since 1817, abolished shortly after, but reorganized in 1856, considers all pedagogical questions and proposals, new text-books, apparatus, and course of studies, works which are to be dedicated to the Emperor or some other member of the Imperial family, etc.

The Ministry formerly numbered 101 officials; but this number has lately been reduced to 22, whose salaries have been raised very considerably.

The Russian empire, exclusive of Poland, Finland, and Caucasia, is divided into ten school-districts, with an area* of 5,928,912 English square miles, and a population numbering 62,214,842. The following table shows the size and population of each of these districts:

District.	English square miles.	Inhabitants.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.
1. St. Petersburg,	167,442	4,278,652	522	25,472
2. Moscow,	166,914	11,062,112	483	30,498
3. Kasan,	605,176	14,953,675	413	41,745
4. Kharkow,	173,492	9,664,160	335	20,070
5. Odessa,	93,742	3,676,590	258	15,610
6. Kiew,	106,568	8,512,104	323	14,599
7. Kilasa,	120,912	5,399,136	1,571	39,380
8. Dorpat,	36,916	1,754,238	276	14,935
9. Western Siberia, . . .	938,300	1,715,917	47	2,877
10. Eastern Siberia, . . .	3,078,944	1,198,259	72	2,682

Each school-district is under the superintendence of a "curator," assisted by a council composed of his assistants, the rector of the university, the inspectors of the district, and the directors of gymnasiums. In discussing pedagogical and didactic questions, the "deans" (*Decani*) of the departments of philosophy and physics have a seat and vote; as well as six professors, those of Russian language and literature, ancient languages, history, natural history, mathematics, and pedagogics. Absolute majority decides. In case no agreement can be arrived at, the curator has to refer the matter to the minister. All questions pertaining merely to administration are settled by the curator alone. In Siberia

* Counting twenty-two English square miles to the German square mile.

the governor is *ex officio* president of the school-board. The facts just mentioned will show the great difficulty of a thorough and beneficial inspection. Considering the great distances and the insufficient means of communication, in spite of the progress which railroads have recently made, it will not be wondered at, that the curators could not possibly pay an annual visit of inspection to every school in their district. In order to make their position somewhat easier, the decision of various smaller matters has of late years been placed entirely in their hands. A great step forward is the fact that no one was admitted to the office of "curator," who had not been a teacher himself.

In superintending the schools of the district, the curators are assisted by inspectors, two in some districts and three in others, which is by no means sufficient. The inspection of the private-schools was left to the government school-director, who at the same time had the superintendence of the government gymnasium, two offices which could not well be combined. In some governments this evil has been remedied by nominating special inspectors for this purpose.

In accordance with the new law for public schools, of July 14, 1864, there is to be a *Kreis* school-board in every *Kreis*, and a government school-board in every government. The *Kreis* school-board is to consist of the Ministries of Public Instruction, of the Interior, and of Ecclesiastical Affairs, two members of the "assembly," of the *Kreis*, and in towns where there are public schools kept up by the town, a member of the town-council. The curators of the elementary-schools in towns and villages may likewise be members of the board. The members are appointed by the archbishop of the district, the curator of the school-district, and the governor. The members sent by the town are chosen by the town; the representatives from the country are chosen, and have every year to make a report to the assembly. The members of the *Kreis* school-board choose their own president, who is confirmed by the governor. The functions of the *Kreis* school-board were the following: Superintendence of the instruction given in the elementary-schools, with the sole exception of religious instruction, which is confided to the clergy; the establishment of new schools, furnishing of text-books and apparatus; besides this, they are empowered to give titles to teachers, to mention the names of the best teachers to the government school-board, and give an annual report of the state of the school. This board meets at least twice a year. An absolute majority decides; in case of an equal vote, the president has the deciding vote. He is also authorized, in urgent cases, to decide a question without the school-board, but has afterwards to give an account of it to the board.

The government school-board is composed of the archbishop, the governor, the school-inspector, and two members of the government assembly. The curator of the school-district has a right, if he happens to be present, to attend the sessions of the board. The archbishop is always the president, and when he is absent, his place is taken by the

governor. This board has the general care of all the elementary-schools in the whole government, and has to pass decision on the proposals made by the *Kreis* school-board.

This institution is specially designed to remedy a deeply-rooted evil. There is in Russia no branch of the administration in whose province there were not some educational establishments, and in Russia, more than in any other country, the lower schools especially have been made to serve some particular end, sometimes merely the education of good penmen for the various offices, and the general education was thus very much neglected. It was, as even Russians themselves remarked, a waste of time and money, and it became clear to most men that public schools ought to have more regard for general education. The government is fully aware of these facts, and aims at placing the special education in the hands of special schools for each particular branch of knowledge. The only reason why this change has not yet been carried out to its full extent, is to be found in the organization of the Russian administration. To begin with, the *Kreis* school-board and government school-board have been commissioned to aim at a more uniform system of instruction in the various educational institutions, and it is to be hoped that their honest efforts in this direction will soon be crowned with complete success. Formerly the Ministry took care of the editing, printing, and publishing of the various text-books. The consequences of this system were similar as for instance in Austria before 1848. The text-books published by order of the department, or bought by it from the authors, had become a monopoly, and frequently the departments hesitated to introduce new and better text-books for the sole reason that they did not wish to incur new expense, most of them having a stock of text-books on hand, which had been published at their expense. As only those books were used in schools which had been published by the department, there was little encouragement for any author to write such a book, because he would hardly find a publisher who would run the pecuniary risk connected with such an undertaking. In most schools, therefore, very antiquated text-books were used, because they were not permitted to buy the books which they considered the best, but those which were on hand in the bookstore of the department. The immense distances, and the general difficulty in sending books by mail, were productive of great inconvenience, so that not unfrequently schools had to wait for months, and even years, for the books ordered. Knowing this from experience, some schools, making use of the unlimited credit given by the department, ordered at once far more books than they actually used, in order to have continually a stock on hand; but these books frequently remained for years unsold in the store-rooms of the gymnasiums and schools. There are instances of books still being on hand in some schools, which were bought more than twenty years ago. The urgent necessity of a change was evident, and in 1864 the following regulations were made with regard to school-books: As a trial, the furnishing of text-books to the

public schools is given to certain booksellers, who, according to contract, have to supply the schools with books at certain fixed prices; the orders are given and the payments made by the schools themselves, without first having to pass through the hands of the department. The printing and publishing of text-books was left entirely to the authors, with the sole clause that their books had to be examined by the "committee for higher instruction," (*Gelehrte Comité*), who published their verdict in the ministerial journal. Whether a book is really to be used depends entirely on the council of curators, the pedagogical councils, and the leading authority of each separate institution.

III. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The elementary and middle class schools in Russia have been considered worthy of the government's attention and care only so far as they were required for the education of government officials. Even the changes that were made in course of time only aimed at improving the existing system, that it might better answer the above-mentioned aim. This likewise explains the strict supervision to which domestic education and private instruction were subjected. It would, however, be unjust to lay all the blame on the government, for social problems are not solved by the dictates of a prince, and education in Russia is a social problem, intimately connected with that of serfdom; and only since the latter has been definitely abolished, is there a fair chance of the former problem being satisfactorily solved.

The present basis of the elementary and parochial schools is the school-regulation of the year 1828, which was a great step towards a better system. Up to that date, instruction in these schools was confined to religion, reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic. The schools consisted of one class, and only in towns, where the majority of the inhabitants followed industrial pursuits, could another class be added for more special instruction; but as the desire for knowledge was very small, but few towns availed themselves of this privilege.

The parochial schools were intended for children of both sexes, and in order to be admitted, boys must have reached the age of 8, and girls that of 11 years. These schools were under the immediate superintendence of the pastor, and instruction was imparted gratis. In the rural districts the schools were open five months in the year, whilst in the towns they were open all the year round for four hours every day. The expenses of the parochial schools in towns and villages belonging to the State or to rich landowners, were met by the parish, whilst the schools on the property of feudal lords were maintained by them.

Nothing tended more to retard a sound development of public instruction than the circumstance, that the ministry was utterly deficient in means to found and maintain such institutions. The number of schools increased but very slowly, and only since 1830 were country-schools founded by the Ministry of Imperial Domains, chiefly with the view of

educating lower officials, but also for the purpose of spreading knowledge among the people living on these imperial domains. This explains why so few schools are under the superintendence of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and why there was so little uniformity in the whole system.

Besides these schools that were under the supervision of the secular authorities, there were and are still other schools under the superintendence of the ecclesiastical authorities of various denominations. From Russian sources we learn that in 1785 the "secular method of instruction" was introduced in the Orthodox-Greek schools; but unfortunately we are left entirely in the dark as to the method pursued previous to this time. These schools consisted of two classes; the subjects taught in the first class were: Russian, reading, calligraphy, and singing; and in the second—Elements of arithmetic; elements of Russian grammar; religion—this latter being, of course, considered the main object of the school. The term lasted from the 1st of September till the 1st of August. The pupils either lived in the school-house or at some neighboring house, but day-scholars were also admitted. The convents likewise maintained a number of schools.

There were, in the Ministry of Public Instruction, no special inspectors for the elementary schools, but these were under the superintendence of the director of the government gymnasium, who was charged to inspect them at least once every two years. It is self-evident that these inspections did not amount to any thing, although these directors were school-men, whilst the inspection of the other parochial schools was confided to officials, who, not having the slightest acquaintance with educational matters, did more harm than good; and even if they should have the best intentions, they could not exercise any influence, for their reports were simply laid on the shelf and consigned to total oblivion.

The regulation of December 8th, 1828, proved so insufficient, that the Ministry of Public Instruction at last charged the committee of scholars (*Gelehrten Comité*) to draw up a school-plan answering the demands of the present age. This work was finished in the year 1860, and sent to the curators of all the school-districts, who, in conjunction with the pedagogical councils of the gymnasia, the inspectors and teachers of the district-schools, were to examine it thoroughly. In order to get the opinion of men who were not in any official way connected with schools, this new school-plan was published in the Journal of the Ministry of Public Instruction; and after it had been completely revised and amended, it was published in its new shape and sent for inspection to the most eminent school-men of foreign countries.

At the same time, another no less important question was discussed by the ministry, chiefly at the instigation of privy-councilor Kowalewsky, who proposed that the foundation, maintenance, and supervision of all the elementary schools should be confided solely to the Ministry of Public Instruction, to whom it properly belonged. To consider this pro-

posal, a committee was appointed by the Emperor, composed of members of the various ministries. The names of the members were: Director of the department of public instruction, privy-councilor Deljanow; counselor of state, prince Urussow; director of ecclesiastical schools, counselor Opotschinin; director of public buildings in the Ministry of Imperial Domains, counselor of state, Tiutschew; second director of the ecclesiastical department of foreign denominations, De Schultz; Lieutenant-colonel Poletika, and the director of the Larinser gymnasium at St. Petersburg, counselor of state Latyschew.

The result of their deliberations was the general outline of a system of elementary schools in Russia, published by special order of the Emperor Alexander II, at Leipzig, in 1862, by Dr. Tanéeff. In this work the necessity and importance of general elementary instruction were acknowledged, but likewise the great difficulty in soon organizing the required number of schools without causing too heavy an expense to the State, which difficulty could only be overcome by the willingness on the part of the people themselves to make some sacrifices. The final solution of this problem and the regulating by law the obligations of towns and villages to found and maintain elementary schools, were, as was mentioned above, intimately connected with that great question, which, since the end of the Crimean war, has occupied the attention of the government, viz., the abolition of serfdom. In the general outline, etc., it says: "It is not possible at present, when so many and sweeping changes in the whole administration are contemplated, either to ascertain the best places for founding schools or to find the proper means for their maintenance. Enough will be done for a beginning, if the number of schools is gradually increased, especially as there is a great lack of competent teachers. All the changes that are to be made can only be provisional, till the country people are all united in one class." The committee proposed, that, in the mean time, schools should be founded by the various authorities, secular and ecclesiastical, but that the Ministry of Public Instruction should be intrusted with the general superintendence, leaving the supervision of the religious instruction to the pastor of each parish, and obliging the school-authorities only to use text-books that had been approved of by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Holy Synod. In order to meet the increased demand for teachers, the pastors should be allowed to combine the duties of teacher with their pastoral office, being made responsible to the highest school-authorities in this respect.

The establishment of a district and government school-board proved very beneficial. The decree, placing all the schools under the supervision of one central authority, gives a safe guarantee for uniformity in the whole system. The difficult problem of regulating the relations between Church and State and the school, does not, fortunately, exist in Russia as in Catholic, and, to some extent also, in Protestant countries, as the clergy are only allowed the supervision of religious instruction.

The government certainly has shown a praiseworthy zeal, and seems,

with regard to educational matters, to be thoroughly imbued with a liberal and progressive spirit, as will be seen from the regulations now in force.

According to the new regulation of July 14th, 1864, the elementary schools are classified as follows:

1. Schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction, including those schools which are maintained, partly at the expense of the towns and villages, partly at the expense of the State, as also those schools which are maintained by private individuals.

2. Schools of the Ministry of Imperial Domains, the Ministry of Imperial Household, the Ministry of the Interior, and the Department of Mining.

3. Schools maintained by the ecclesiastical authorities.

4. Sunday-schools founded and maintained partly by the State and partly by the towns or by private individuals.

The course of instruction in all these schools embraces religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, (only church-tunes.) The superintendence of the religion and morals of the scholars is intrusted to the pastors; the language used in these schools is Russian. Children of all classes of society and of all religious denominations are admitted. The sexes are to be kept separated, except in places where there are not sufficient means for founding separate schools for boys and girls. In the Sunday-schools the sexes must always be kept separated.

The new regulations are, in some particulars, essentially different from those hitherto in vogue. The system of crown-schools (government-schools) was abandoned, and a larger field opened for private enterprise. The government disclaims the intention of establishing elementary schools every where, and limits itself to favoring the foundation of such establishments. This idea is a very excellent one in itself, if applied to thoroughly civilized countries, but in Russia the elementary schools will make but slow progress, if left too much to the sole care of the local and parish authorities. Decided action on the part of the government here becomes an imperative duty.

Attendance at school has not been made obligatory in Russia, nor is there any law obliging the parishes to found schools. The government merely grants some pecuniary assistance and rewards, and in 1865 the sum of 100,000 rubles was appropriated for this purpose. It is needless to say that the results obtained are very insignificant. The question whether instruction is to be made obligatory or not is certainly a very important one, and has formed the subject of frequent discussions. In Russia, the government has renounced the idea of advancing the progress of civilization by this means, but leaves every thing to the slow influence of time, merely giving occasional encouragement to educational enterprises. Under this policy, it will take a very long time before the majority of the people will have acquired even the merest elements of education.

Special attention is given by the government to education in the west-

ern and south-western parts of the empire, from purely political reasons. The aim here is to favor a "specific Russian education," and to reduce to the smallest possible limits the influence of the Polish and Catholic party. The teachers required for this purpose are educated at the Teachers' Seminary at Molodetschno, and every possible means is resorted to, to extinguish the Polish nationality.

During the last few years a considerable number of schools has been established in the western governments. The only statistics to be got at are from the years 1862 to 1864. In this period there were established in the government of Wilna, 82 schools; in the government of Grodno, 158; in the government of Minsk, 388; in the government of Witebsk, 126; in the government of Mohilew, 111; in the government of Kowno, 21; in the government of Kiew, 17; and in the government of Podolia, 26.

As regards the elementary schools under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Instruction, the fullest statistics are from the year 1864, as follows:

District.	No. of Schools.	NUMBER OF SCHOLARS.							OCCUPATION OF FATHERS.			
		SEX.		RELIGION.					Noble- men.	Clergy.	Burg- ulars.	Peas- ants.
		Boys.	Girls.	Greek.	Cath- olic.	Prot- estant.	Mohamme- dan, Jews, Paga.					
St. Petersburg.	85	4,371	957	5,270	9	30	19	377	54	3,837	1,061	
Moscow.	222	11,404	1,713	13,108	3	1	7	684	127	9,224	3,043	
Kasan.	210	10,257	1,496	11,580	—	10	112	790	178	6,161	4,098	
Kharkow.	175	8,061	1,442	9,513	2	1	17	1,014	280	4,077	4,188	
Odessa.	78	3,911	63	3,905	17	8	47	365	94	2,020	768	
Kiew.	106	2,789	123	2,556	272	61	23	776	101	1,174	874	
Wilna.	96	2,734	82	1,340	1,359	28	84	673	34	1,398	777	
Dorpat.	77	3,350	1,211	638	110	3,673	41	311	99	3,038	1,046	
Western Siberia.	25	1,100	190	1,969	—	—	19	87	13	1,075	121	
East Siberia.	49	1,571	82	1,542	—	—	111	75	18	636	239	
Total.	1,137	49,328	7,365	50,193	1,771	3,812	477	5,102	902	33,251	17,498	

On the 1st of January, 1865, the schools and scholars were distributed as follows:

District.	Schools.	No. of Scholars.	District.	Schools.	No. of Scholars.
St. Petersburg.	106	6,267	Kiew.	111	3,918
Moscow.	232	13,355	Wilna.	751	24,319
Kasan.	197	11,669	Dorpat.	76	4,388
Kharkow.	190	10,647	Western Siberia.	26	1,298
Odessa.	78	4,232	Eastern Siberia.	61	1,653

With the exception of Western Siberia, the number of schools has increased in every district. The total number of parochial and elementary schools in 1865 was 1,846, with an attendance of 81,624 scholars, of whom 70,877 were boys and 10,748 girls.

Besides these parochial and elementary schools, there are, under the superintendence of the Ministry of Public Instruction, numerous private schools, viz.: 414 private schools for boys, with an attendance (in 1864) of 4,244 scholars; 187 private schools for girls, with 3,981 scholars; 255 mixed private schools, attended by 2,969 boys and 2,627 girls. In the

year 1865 there were 799 private schools, with 22,814 scholars, (8,986 boys and 13,828 girls.) The foreign religious denominations had, in 1865, 152 schools, attended by 15,860 boys and 12,423 girls.

Still more scanty are the statistics of the elementary schools under the superintendence of other authorities. The Ministry of Imperial Domains has 7,137 schools, with 191,075 boys and 85,921 girls. The Ministry of the "Apanagen" has 294 village-schools; 1,046 parochial and private-schools; 721 private borough-schools, (*Gemeinde privat schulen*), and 111 schools in connection with the Mohammedan mosques. The ecclesiastical authorities of the Orthodox-Greek Church have 8,587 schools, with 320,350 scholars. Unfortunately no fuller statistics can be got at, and how little reliance can be placed on those which have here been given, may be inferred from the Russian authority, from whom we have quoted them, who says that "among these schools there are several which are reckoned twice," whilst some have a merely nominal existence.

Very little has hitherto been done for the education of teachers. As early as 1820 an attempt was made to establish a normal course for the education of elementary school-teachers at the gymnasium of St. Petersburg, but after two years the project was abandoned. The division for the education of elementary school-teachers, at the so-called "Pedagogical Institute" of St. Petersburg, was only in existence for ten years. In Dorpat there has been, since 1828, a Teachers' Seminary, with an average number of 10 students, who there get their board and education gratis. The new regulations for this Seminary were published in 1861. The students are selected from the most diligent district-scholars. An elementary school is connected with this Seminary, numbering, in September, 1864, 67 pupils; likewise a school for poor children, with 72 pupils; all of these belong to the Lutheran Church. At Kiew and Kharkow there are likewise pedagogical courses for elementary school-teachers. In 1864 a new Seminary was established at Molodetschno, in the government of Wilna, for 60 students that were to be educated at the expense of the State; the number of paying students at this institution is limited to 20. There is also a pedagogical course at the University of Kiew. It is evident that these few institutions do not at all meet the demand for teachers, and the Ministry of Public Instruction is at the present time engaged in framing a new law for the education of elementary school-teachers. The intention seems to be to establish separate institutions, after the model of the Teachers' Seminaries in Germany and Switzerland.

The instruction in these new institutions will be mainly elementary. The catechetical method will be employed as a general rule. Religion, pedagogics, Russian language, history, geography, statistics, natural history, arithmetic, geometry, calligraphy, linear drawing, singing, gymnastics, agriculture, and horticulture, will constitute the course. Until these Seminaries are definitely established, elementary school-teachers will receive only a pedagogical course in some of the district-schools.

Sad to say, the elementary-schools, not only in the villages but also in some of the towns, are taught by discharged soldiers or by mechanics and farmers, who happen to possess some knowledge of reading and writing.

The pecuniary situation of the elementary school-teachers is likewise to be ameliorated. The salary at the present time varies from 30 to 100 rubles and a house. After having served for 25 years, they are entitled to an annual pension varying from 28 to 90 rubles. The committee of scholars (*Gelehrte Comité*) has made a series of propositions tending to ameliorate the position of elementary school-teachers. In the towns, teachers are to get 280 rubles, and in the country 150 rubles, with house and fuel. If faithful in the discharge of their duties, their salary is to be increased gradually, after having served for ten years. In the country they are, besides, to get a piece of ground.

The economical and pedagogical management of the elementary schools, under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Instruction, does not satisfy even the most moderate demands, as we may infer from one of the reports, where it says: "The elementary schools are mostly filled with children of parents who are not able to teach their children even a short prayer, and who frequently keep them at home to assist in domestic labors. The sums paid for the maintenance of these schools are so small that it is impossible to get even the necessary books, etc. Many of the school-rooms are excessively inconvenient and small. As a natural consequence the children in two years scarcely learn reading." Privy-councilor Postels, member of the Ministry of Public Instruction, who, in 1863, inspected the schools of the governments Olonez, Archangelsk, Wologda, and Wjatka, says in his report: "The parochial schools of Wjatka differ from those in the district of St. Petersburg in this respect, that the former are far superior as regards school-houses, salaries of the teachers and school-apparatus. In Wologda, on the contrary, the two parochial schools are so poor that they can not pay a man to clean the school-rooms; the rooms are narrow and ill-ventilated, the salary of the teacher does not exceed 100 rubles, and there is scarcely any apparatus at all. In Kargopol, 85 boys and 9 girls are crowded into three very small adjoining rooms, with only one teacher, who has scarcely any books or charts. In Kadnikow the parish pays a total of 108 rubles for the male parochial schools, and in the female parochial schools the salary of the teacher only amounts to 50 rubles. In Totjma the teacher receives 90 rubles, and the parish does not even supply the necessary funds for repairing the utterly dilapidated school-house. In Nikolsk the school is allowed a room in the town-hall, the teacher gets 90 rubles, and the whole apparatus consists in one blackboard. In Werchowashsky-Possad the teacher gets 85 rubles and no house. Many schools only contain one room. In the parochial schools of Archangelsk the teachers get from 85 to 120 rubles, whilst the prices of provisions have, during the last two years, increased three-fold in that district. In many places

the sum voted for schools by the parish is not paid at the right time, and the teachers consequently do not receive any salary for several months. The directors and inspectors are fully acquainted with this state of affairs, but, with the best intentions, are utterly unable to remedy the evil. In spite of the low price of the text-books published by the ministry, there are many parents who, on the plea of poverty, do not provide them for their children. The consequence is that many children sit in the school-room without having any thing to do, or bring along some other book, which they can not understand. Another evil is the frequent absence of children from school, the causes of which are the following : The parents, who do not in the least comprehend the necessity and importance of instruction, let the children remain at home on the most trivial pretexts ; on the weekly market-days a considerable number of the scholars may be seen idling about on the streets ; in some cases the children have actually been kept at home from want of proper clothing, whilst others were sent on begging expeditions to the neighboring villages. During the summer months many of the boys have to work in the fields with their parents, or remain at home to take care of their younger brothers and sisters ; of the girls, many hire themselves out as nurses for a very trifling remuneration, and there are instances of not only peasants doing this, but also some of the poorly-paid lower officials."

Similar complaints fill the reports of all the curators ; the means for maintaining the schools are too small, the teachers incompetent, their pay inadequate, and the apparatus utterly insufficient. Even in populous cities the attendance at school is poor, and the apathy or indolence of the population almost incredible. The method of instruction is a purely mechanical one ; the teacher does not teach at all, but merely sees to it that every thing goes its regular old accustomed way, that all the scholars say one and the same thing, or speak loud enough.

The organization of the school system in Western Siberia is somewhat different, as the supreme authority in school matters rests with the governor-general, who is assisted by a school-director, nominated by the Emperor. The appointments of all the other officials, with the exception of the gymnasium-director, who is appointed by the minister, are made by the governor alone, who has every year to send in a report to the minister. The greatest difficulty has here likewise been the want of teachers.

The German schools, in the governments Kherson, Iekaterinoslaw, Thernigow, St. Petersburg, Bessarabia, and Georgia, are mostly in an excellent condition. They are maintained by the parishes, and are on a level with the better class of elementary schools in Germany. As soon as a new colony is founded, a school is at once established and a competent teacher appointed. The statistics of these schools are very scanty. In the 25 German colonies on the Wolga there are 128 schools, with 146 teachers and 80,768 scholars. But there is also a lack of teachers. The school of the colony Gelolobowka numbers 927 scholars, with only 2

teachers; the school of the colony Medwedizko-Krestowoi Bujerak numbers 967 scholars and 2 teachers, and the one at Priwolskaja, 735 scholars, with only 1 teacher.

The Tartar schools are a kind of boarding-schools. Every father of a family considers it his duty to send his children to school, and most Tartars are able to read and write. The school-houses consist of an entrance-hall and a large school-room with a raised floor, on which every scholar is assigned a space of two feet, to deposit his satchel and books. The house serves as school-room, dormitory and dining-room for teachers and scholars. The children have to stay at school from the 7th or 8th year of their age till the 12th or 13th. The course of instruction embraces the Mohammedan religion, Arabic, (reading and writing,) and in some schools also the Persian language. The teachers get no fixed salary, but their trouble is amply rewarded by liberal gifts of flour, honey, tea and clothes, which are sent by the parents from time to time.

The Hebrew schools in Russia have their own peculiar organization. The Jewish population of Russia in Europe (not including Poland and Finland) amounts to 1,426,000. Already, in 1834 and 1835, Jewish children were granted admittance to Christian schools. This measure, however, had not the desired effect. The government placed all the Jewish schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction, and took steps towards organizing these schools. A special committee of rabbis and school-men met in June, 1842, to consider this matter, and on November 13th, 1844, an imperial resolution decreed the foundation of special schools for Jewish children. For the maintenance of these schools, the taxes on the holy tapers burning in the churches on festival days, and the tax on printing, were to be used. These Hebrew schools were divided into 3 classes: (1,) schools corresponding to the elementary schools; (2,) schools corresponding to the district-schools, to be established only in those governments where the Jewish children could not, from some local cause, be admitted to the Christian district-schools; 3, schools corresponding to the Christian gymnasiums, to be called *rabbi-schools*, (*Rabbinerschulen*.) These last-mentioned were to have three courses, a general one for all the scholars, a pedagogical course for those who intended to become teachers, and a special course for rabbis. The schools of the first and second class were opened in 1844; of the latter there were 13 in all. The result obtained was, however, insignificant, as the number of scholars always remained small. Some of them had to be closed, and there are at present only in 5 places schools of the second class. Of the first class there are at present 99, viz.: 11 in Volhynia, 10 in Kiew, 9 in Podolia, 9 in Mohilew, 8 in Witebsk, 7 in Courland, 6 in Wilna, 6 in Bessarabia, 5 in Iekaterinoslaw, 5 in Kowno, 5 in Grodno, 5 in Minsk, 4 in Tschernigow, 4 in Kherson, 3 in Pultawa, 2 in Tauria. Besides these, there are in Russia a number of Hebrew private schools and girls' schools.

The Hebrew industrial school at Shitomir, a unique establishment in

Russia, has been in existence since 1862, and 80 boys, from the age of 13 to 15, are here educated at the expense of the State. "External" scholars pay an annual fee of 80 rubles. The course lasts 5 years, and embraces the following subjects: Russian, Hebrew, religion, (Jewish,) calligraphy, drawing, arithmetic, elements of geometry, chemistry, technology, and physics as applied to industry. Practical instruction is imparted in some of the most common trades, such as smiths, cabinet-makers, turners, locksmiths, etc. The general subjects are taught by the teachers of the gymnasium or the rabbi-school, and the practical instruction is given by experienced tradesmen. After having finished their course at school, the scholars remain for two years longer under the supervision of the school-authorities. In 1864 the number of scholars was 32.

The Hebrew schools will soon undergo a complete reorganization, as all, who are acquainted with them, are convinced of their uselessness if continued after the present system. The poorer classes of the Jewish population are not able to send their children to school, and the wealthier classes prefer to send them to the district-school or the gymnasium. The intention of the government, in establishing Hebrew schools, was particularly to liberate the Jewish youth from the pernicious influence of the ignorant and fanatical *Melamdin*, (private Jewish teachers,) but an experience of twenty years has shown that this end has not been reached, for the old schools of the *Melamdin* are still in existence, and an official report estimates their present number at 1,848. Of all the Jewish schools founded by the government, the only successful ones have been the "rabbi-schools," after having victoriously come out of the conflict with the fanaticism of the orthodox Jews. The government had hoped that the schools of the second class would be well attended by the Jewish youth; but most of these schools stood empty, and consequently 8 out of the 13 schools were closed by an imperial resolution of May 4th, 1859. The 5 remaining ones are the schools at Berditschen, Starokonstantinow, Winniza, Odessa, and Kischinew. The schools of the first class are not in a very flourishing condition; chiefly because the orthodox Jews feared that the doctrines of the Reformers would be taught in them. In order to remove this prejudice, the government, by resolution of May 4th, 1859, decreed that only secular knowledge was to be imparted at these schools, and that every Jew might have his children instructed in religion at home. An imperial resolution of September 6th, 1862, ordered that pupils of the "rabbi-schools" could likewise hold the office of inspector in Hebrew schools of the first and second class.

The female seminaries have undergone considerable changes, and may at present well be termed new institutions. There were formerly several institutions for the education of young ladies, founded by the munificence of the Empresses. The first institution of this kind was established in the year 1820, at St. Petersburg, by the Empress Maria, and chiefly intended for the children of the nobility and the higher officials. The

wife of the Emperor Nicholas, Alexandra Feodorowna, was likewise very active in raising the standard of female education. In various places there were female seminaries under the superintendence of the local authorities. According to a resolution of May 10th, 1860, the female seminaries are divided into two classes, the first corresponding to the gymnasiums, the second to the district-schools. At present there are already such seminaries in the government towns; only some of these are under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Instruction, whilst most of them come under the Imperial Chancery. At the head of each of these establishments there is a directress, assisted by the director of the gymnasium or the inspector of the district-school. There is also a superintending board for each school, composed of some of the most respected citizens of the town, the high marshal of the district, (*Kreisadelmarschall*), the governor of the town, (*Stadthauptmann*), the director of the gymnasium, and the inspector of the district-school. Some of these institutions are called model-pensions, and receive an annual subsidy from the State. The number of female seminaries is as yet very small, and most parents, who can afford it, send their children to private institutions of the kind. There are at present 18 female seminaries in St. Petersburg, 11 in Moscow, and 54 in the whole of Russia, with 8,231 pupils. In St. Petersburg, boarders pay from 200 to 1,200 rubles annually; the fee for mere instruction ranges from 50 to 500 rubles. In Moscow, boarders pay from 200 to 300 rubles; the fee for instruction only is from 50 to 125 rubles per annum. The female schools under the superintendence of the Ministry of Public Instruction, were (in 1861) 95, viz.: 25 of the first class (or female gymnasiums;) 54 of the second class; 7 higher schools, and 9 middle class schools. The means for maintaining these schools are raised in various ways, by contributions from the cities, the merchants and the nobility, and by the school-fees. At present the number of these schools is 123. Most of them have only been founded since 1858, and the regulation at present in force dates from May 10th, 1860.

The first Sunday-schools were opened at Kiew in 1859, where some students, of their own accord, commenced to give free instruction to mechanics. In 1860, similar schools were opened by the Bureau of Industry at St. Petersburg. In the regulations issued for these schools by the Minister of Public Instruction, the priest who was nominated for each one was charged "to watch strictly over the religious and moral tone of these establishments, and see that no heretical doctrines were taught." The number of Sunday-schools in 1862 was 316, and the number of scholars about 20,000. In the beginning, the Russian public manifested great interest in these schools; soon, however, this interest decreased. In 1862, rumors were floating about that, according to the testimony of some mechanics, doctrines were disseminated in some of these schools, which would undermine the foundations of religion, spread socialistic ideas, and incite rebellion against the government. After a

very strict and tedious investigation, it turned out that only one man had taught something approaching these heresies. Nevertheless, all the Sunday-schools were closed until a new plan of organization had been worked out. The law of July 14th, 1864, again permits the establishment of Sunday-schools for mechanics, subject to certain conditions ; but as yet no one seems to have availed himself of this privilege.

IV. DISTRICT-SCHOOLS, (*Kreisschulen*.)

The *district-schools* originated in the lower public schools consisting of two classes, founded in 1786 ; for by the resolution of May 5th, 1804, the upper class of an elementary school underwent a change by having a second class added to it, whilst the lower class became a parochial school. By the regulation of 1828, the district school received an addition of another class, and thus consists at present of 3 classes. According to the 46th paragraph of the regulation of 1828, the district-schools are chiefly intended to give a more thorough education than was offered by the elementary schools to the children of merchants and mechanics, and in this respect they correspond to the lower burgher-schools of Germany. Each recitation lasts $1\frac{1}{4}$ hour, and candidates for admission must possess a good knowledge of reading and writing.

The course of instruction (hours per week) is the following :

STUDIES.	CLASSES.		
	III.	II.	I.
Religion,.....	2	2	2
Russian Language,.....	4	4	4
Arithmetic,.....	4	4	1
Geometry,.....	—	—	5
History,.....	2	2	2
Geography and Statistics,.....	2	2	2
Calligraphy,.....	4	4	1
Free-hand and Geometrical Drawing,.....	2	2	3
Total,.....	20	20	20

Besides these, there are special classes for the following subjects : General review of Russian laws ; elements of commercial science and book-keeping ; elements of mechanics and technology ; drawing applied to industrial purposes ; elements of architecture, agriculture, and horticulture.

The district-schools of Kiew and Wilna have a somewhat different organization. They are schools for noblemen, and have 5 classes. Besides religion, the Russian language, arithmetic, geography and history, French and German are taught.

In the district of Dorpat quite a number of heterogeneous schools are comprised under the head of district-schools. In Riga and Dorpat their organization is similar to that of the German burgher-schools, whilst in other places the Russian plan of instruction has been adopted with good

success. There are, finally, district-schools which are only a higher class of elementary-schools, intended to prepare pupils for the gymnasiums, adding Latin to the course of instruction.

The results obtained in the district-schools have, with the exception of those in the district of Dorpat, been very scanty. There was a great want of teachers, the special courses were not every where opened, and even where they existed, they proved utterly useless, as there was no good foundation of general knowledge whereon to build the special instruction. These deficiencies are fully known to Russian school-men, but they have not yet been able to do any thing towards remedying them. The way in which instruction was imparted was not calculated to benefit the scholars. Religion was taught by the pastors in the most mechanical manner, being limited to the learning by heart of the orthodox catechism. The Russian language was not taught in a systematic way, and the lectures on Russian literature chiefly consisted in telling the pupils which and how many orders and medals had been given to various poets for writing loyal odes and poems for national festivals, no doubt with the intention to spur them on to gain similar honors themselves at some future day. The mathematical instruction was, comparatively speaking, the most thorough, although even this left much to be desired. Geography was limited to a mere drilling in names and numbers, and history was taught from a text-book prescribed by the government.

The natural consequence of these deficiencies was, that the district-schools lost the confidence of the public, because they neither gave a good general education nor prepared pupils for special branches; and the highest class, intended to form a connecting link between elementary and special instruction, was attended least of all.

As the district-schools did not at all answer the purpose for which they were instituted, many children of the lower classes of society tried to gain admittance to the gymnasiums, hoping in this manner to be able ultimately to enter the official career. As the regulations of 1845 and 1849 limited the admittance to the gymnasiums to the sons of noblemen and officials, the natural and unfortunate consequence was that many parents did not send their children to any school.

The district-schools are under the immediate superintendence of the government-director, and at the head of each there is an inspector; the faculty consists of 1 teacher of religion, 3 other (scientific) teachers, and 1 drawing-master. The salaries of the inspectors and teachers vary, and are by the resolution of April 17th, 1859, divided into 4 classes:

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Inspector,	500 rubles.	450 rubles.	400 rubles.	350 rubles.
Teacher of Religion,	200 "	—	—	—
Teachers, (Scientific,) . . .	400 "	350 "	330 "	300 "
Drawing Master,	200 "	—	—	—

The attendance at the district-schools was as follows in 1864 :

Districts.	Schools.	Scholars.
St. Petersburg,	43	2,605
Moscow,	86	5,727
Kasan,	81	5,319
Kharkow,	67	3,669
Odessa,	33	1,749
Kiew,	42	2,482
Wilna,	20	1,332
Dorpat,	20	1,400
Western Siberia,	13	735
Eastern Siberia,	8	649
Total,	413	25,658

The number of district-schools in 1865 was 416, with 23,952 scholars and 2,743 teachers, distributed in the following manner :

Districts.	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.
St. Petersburg,	43	2,400	300
Moscow,	86	5,158	560
Kasan,	82	4,783	531
Kharkow,	67	3,378	434
Kiew,	42	2,408	303
Odessa,	33	1,649	246
Wilna,	20	1,357	148
Dorpat,	20	1,449	87
Western Siberia,	13	635	78
Eastern Siberia,	10	735	56
Total,	416	23,952	2,743

The social position and occupation of the parents were as follows :

Districts.	Noblemen.	Clergy.	Burghers.	Peasants.	Foreigners.
St. Petersburg,	503	33	1,674	189	1
Moscow,	1,193	66	3,494	403	2
Kasan,	980	123	2,785	895	—
Kharkow,	1,172	88	1,415	700	3
Kiew,	1,317	105	646	269	11
Odessa,	678	52	776	132	20
Wilna,	601	19	555	175	7
Dorpat,	169	7	896	344	33
Western Siberia,	138	8	393	96	—
Eastern Siberia,	99	4	455	177	—
Total,	6,860	505	13,089	3,380	77

The want which is to be supplied by the district-schools seems as yet not to exist. The average number of scholars in each school is 57, and in each class 19. There are, however, schools with only 2 or 3 scholars! And small as is the amount of knowledge acquired in the district-schools, only a comparatively small number of pupils go through the whole

course, (of 10,610, only 2,621.) There is in Russia so enormous a demand for people who can only read and write, that even the trifling knowledge picked up at an elementary-school or in the first class of a district-school seems to suffice for many offices. The annual school-fees vary from 1 to 8 rubles, and only in the district of Dorpat do they amount to from 12 to 20 rubles.

The intention of the government is to establish, in place of the district-schools so called, progymnasia, to prepare pupils for the gymnasia. They are to consist of 4 classes, with an annual course in each. There is to be a progymnasium in connection with every gymnasium, but other progymnasia may be established. The subjects of instruction are to be: Religion, Russian language, mathematics, natural philosophy, natural history, geography, history, German, French, calligraphy, drawing, and singing. The foreign languages are not to be considered obligatory. The number of recitations in all the 4 classes is to be 104, distributed in the following manner: Religion, 7; Russian language, 18; history, 7; natural philosophy, natural history, and geography, 14; mathematics, 17; German, 14; French, 14; calligraphy, drawing, and singing, 13.

The plan, showing the manner in which the various subjects are to be treated, shows great pedagogical insight, and might safely be recommended to many schools in other countries. Instruction is to be imparted by 7 teachers, each having one or two subjects specially assigned to him. Any class containing more than 40 scholars is to be divided into two separate classes.

V. SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

The establishment of gymnasiums in Russia is of comparatively recent date. It has not been developed gradually on the basis of the tradition of centuries, but has been created by command of the Emperors, especially Alexander I. In spite of the short time of their existence, we can nevertheless say, that the Russian gymnasiums have gone through numerous phases, three of which are particularly noteworthy; first, their complete dependence on the government. Not ancient convent or city-schools, nor venerable institutions founded by independent corporations, form the source from which the Russian gymnasiums sprang, but they were almost exclusively created by the strong hand of the Emperors, and their character consequently varied with the character of each individual reign. In the second place the traditions of classical antiquity exercised in the beginning very little influence on the gymnasiums of Russia; but preëminently modern studies, as mathematics, natural sciences, and modern languages, were predominant in the course of instruction, whilst only a very modest space of time was allowed to the study of the ancient classics. Thirdly, whilst the tendency at all the gymnasiums of Western Europe was to give more time to the study of modern languages and natural sciences, which finally led to a separation of the real-school from the gymnasium, the Russian gymnasiums followed the opposite course,

by gradually introducing more of the classical studies. The result, however, has been the same as in Western Europe, namely a division of the middle class schools into gymnasiums with and gymnasiums without classical instruction.

The first Russian gymnasium was founded in 1747, at St. Petersburg, in connection with the Imperial Academy of Sciences; the second in 1755, at the University of Moscow; and finally the third in the year 1758, at Kasan. These gymnasiums were intended as preparatory schools for the university, chiefly as regards foreign languages, because the lectures at the universities were mostly in French or German. The Empress Catharine II decreed the establishment of 22 gymnasiums at the capitals of the different governments, and this number had increased to 42 at the end of her reign; but all these institutions scarcely deserved the name of gymnasiums. Alexander I was the monarch who built up the Russian gymnasiums on a more lasting foundation. According to the statute of 1804, the gymnasiums were to answer a two-fold purpose, viz., preparation for the university, and the spreading of more general knowledge. Every government city was to have at least a gymnasium of 4 classes, and every one was to be admitted who could prove a sufficient knowledge of the subjects taught in the district schools, (*Kreis-schulen*.) The course of study was not the same at all the gymnasiums. In the district of Dorpat the study of the ancient classics was preponderating; in the district of Wilna the study of the classics and of more general knowledge was evenly balanced, whilst in the districts of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kasan, Kharkow, the course of instruction embraced chiefly more general studies. These gymnasiums, however, did not flourish as much as had been expected, partly from want of proper teachers, partly from the fact that many of the better class preferred to have their children instructed by private tutors, or sent them to foreign schools. A thorough reorganization was needed to remedy these evils, and this took place in 1828, under the reign of Nicholas I.

The most essential points in the new plan were the following: There were to be seven classes in each gymnasium; the faculty was to consist of one director, one inspector, seven head-masters, three teachers, and one drawing-master. Instruction in Latin was made obligatory in all the classes, whilst Greek was an optional subject; the salaries of the teachers were more than doubled, and the latter circumstance was particularly calculated to supply the want of teachers, for more talented young men now devoted themselves to teaching, and the pedagogical institute of director Middendorf, as well as the universities, annually furnished a constantly increasing number of young men as teachers. Thus in a few years the Russian gymnasiums reached a very flourishing condition.

This was, however, to be only of short duration. In the statutes of 1828, special stress was laid on the gymnasiums being intended as educational establishments for some of the nobility and higher officials, and this circumstance soon deprived them of their proper character as gen-

eral educational establishments, and made them special schools for the more privileged classes. This change received legal sanction by the regulation of 1849; the Russian gymnasiums were henceforth to be schools for the education of officials for the government service, and with regard to their course of study were to be divided into three groups: 36 gymnasiums with jurisprudence and natural sciences; 29 with jurisprudence; 12 with Greek.

This change of the gymnasiums to more general schools, with the outspoken intention to drill the scholars for some official career, had a bad influence on the course of studies and the way of instructing. The "committee for higher instruction" (*Gelehrte Comité*) from time to time drew attention to these facts in their reports, and the result was the school-law of November 19, 1864, the chief point in which is the division of the gymnasiums into "classical gymnasia" and "real-gymnasia." The former to have an extensive and thorough course of ancient languages, the latter to exclude these altogether, and substitute a full course of mathematics, natural sciences, and modern languages. Built on this firm basis, the Russian gymnasiums may look into the future with some hope of accomplishing the end in view, namely, to give a good secondary instruction. As the same time with this thorough reform of the plan of studies, special attention was likewise devoted to the educating element of the secondary-schools, and greater independence granted to the "councils of teachers," (*Lehrer Collegien*.) The pedagogical council at every middle-class school was to consist of all the teachers, the director being the president. This council had to consider the election and dismissal of teachers, without, however, depriving the director of his privileges; they had, furthermore, to make a choice of text-books, arrange the programme of studies, &c. The self-direction of the Russian middle-class schools was only to be limited in cases, the nature of which demanded a higher decision; such as the freeing of poor scholars from paying the school-fees, and the granting of stipends to the most deserving amongst them, on which subjects the "council of curators" (*Curatorische Collegium*) had to pass a decision. This last-mentioned council consists of the patron and director of the respective institution, the "church inspector," (*Ortskirchen inspector*), the mayor, and some members chosen from among the most respectable and intelligent inhabitants of the town; its duties are to look after the material and economical interests of the middle-class schools. Indirectly the superintendence of all the educational establishments of a district, consequently also of the gymnasiums, belongs to the respective curator, and all resolutions of the "pedagogical council" relating to the following subjects, must be sanctioned by him, viz.: Personal affairs of the teachers, digressions from the normal course of instruction, new improvements, &c. To give due weight, however, to the pedagogic and didactic considerations, he must, before giving any decision, lay the question before a committee, consisting of the rector of the university, the inspectors of the district, the directors of the gymna-

sium, and in mere pedagogic and didactic questions also of some professors of the philosophical faculty; absolute majority decides the question; only if the curator does not agree with the majority the ultimate decision is left to the ministry.

We see thus, that the self-government given to the Russian gymnasiums is very considerable, and that even in Russia one begins to abandon the principle, so long prevalent here as in other countries, of making the flourishing condition of the educational institutions dependent on a well organized hierarchical bureaucratic administration, instead of relying for this result on a comparatively independent staff of well educated teachers; the only right and just principle of letting school matters only be influenced and their administration wholly confided to men of science and school-men, setting aside all political or party considerations, is every year gaining more ground in Russia.

In order to derive real lasting benefits from the greater autonomy of the Russian gymnasiums, special attention was to be given to the raising of the scientific and moral standard of the teachers generally, and the government did this in two different directions: first, the conditions for obtaining a teacher's place were rendered more severe, and secondly, the material and social position of the teachers was considerably improved. With regard to the first point, it was decreed, that whoever wanted to become a teacher of sciences or languages at any gymnasium, must give satisfactory evidence of having gone through a complete course at a Russian university. Those who intend to become teachers have to attend special lectures on pedagogics, and also go through some practical exercises. After having finished their course at the university, they are, for one year, placed at a gymnasium, to go through some practical exercises. During the university-course, as well as during the practical course at the gymnasium, stipends are paid to pedagogical students, which oblige them to serve as teachers for 6 years. Such a stipend is not to be less than 300 rubles, and the total of all the stipends for all the districts not less than 800.

With regard to the social and financial position of teachers at the gymnasiums, the "committee on higher education" (*Gelehrte Comité*) proposed to raise the salaries and the "social rank" (*Rangclasse*) of the directors, inspectors, and teachers, "for," said the report, "as long as the directors of gymnasiums and schools are, in spite of the importance of their position, placed lower in the social scale than any other persons employed in the administration of the government, the whole system of education is lowered in the eyes of the people." Although the propositions of the "committee on higher education" (*Gelehrte Comité*) were not carried out to their full extent, the position of directors and teachers is at present quite an honorable one.

As regards the course of studies at the Russian gymnasiums, as fixed by the statute of Nov. 19th, 1864, our sources unfortunately contain only very general statements. The outline of the course of studies is the following:

A. Classical Gymnasiums with two ancient languages.
 B. " " " " one ancient language.

	CLASSES.														RECESSIONS.	
	I.		II.		III.		IV.		V.		VI.		VII.		Each 1½ hours.	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
Religion,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	14	14
Russian Language and Literature,	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	24	24
Latin,	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	34	30
Greek,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	24	—
French or,	3	—	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	2	4	2	4	19	19
German,	—	3	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19
Mathematics,	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	22	22
History,	—	—	—	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	14	14
Geography,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	8
Natural History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	8
Physics,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	6	6
Drawing and Calligraphy,	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	13
	24	24	25	25	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	184	184

Singing and gymnastics are taught in extra hours.

The course of studies at the Real-gymnasia is the following:

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	Total Number of Recessions.
Religion,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	14
Russian,	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	28
French,	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	22
German,	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	24
Mathematics,	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	25
History,	—	—	2	3	3	3	3	14
Geography,	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	8
Nat. History and Chemistry,	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	23
Physics and Cosmography,	—	—	—	—	3	3	3	9
Drawing,	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	20
	24	24	27	27	27	27	27	184

These reforms in the course of studies at the Russian gymnasiums are at the present time (1868) only on paper, and it will no doubt take some time before we can look for palpable results. The great and urgent want just now is competent teachers. Even the Russian reports acknowledge this with great candor. There are many other wants that make themselves felt, as the want of suitable text-books, of physical cabinets, &c.

Such evils can only be remedied by time. How insufficient is the number of teachers we see from one of the reports, in which it says: "In spite of our being by sheer necessity obliged to employ such persons, who do not possess the requisite qualifications, the usual number of vacancies at our gymnasia (exclusive of the districts of Dorpat and St. Petersburg) is 70. There have of late been special causes of this want of teachers. Political reasons have led the government to discharge suddenly all the native and Catholic teachers at the gymnasiums of the western governments, and fill their places with Russians belonging to the

Orthodox-Greek Church. The change in the educational system of Poland likewise deprived the Russian gymnasiums of many teachers, who, attracted by the promise of higher salaries, went to Poland to fill the vacancies at the Polish gymnasiums occasioned by the discharge of the native Polish teachers. On account of the great demand for teachers, many students had to leave the university before having completely finished their studies, and their inexperience could not remain without any influence on their pupils." Similar complaints are made in all the districts, particularly from the district of Kiew, from which a great number of teachers went to Poland during the last few years. The consequence of this whole movement is this, that many of the teachers at the gymnasiums in Russia proper consider their position only as a provisional one, as a period of transition till they can find a better place in Poland.

In order to produce a greater uniformity in the method of instruction and in the school-discipline, Teachers' Meetings have been held from time to time, since 1861. They are either "special meetings" for the teachers of some particular study, or "general meetings" of directors, inspectors, and teachers, to discuss general pedagogical questions. The government, otherwise strongly opposed to meetings of any kind, has made a praiseworthy exception in this respect.

After long debates, the authorities decided to retain the "boarding-schools" (*Pensionen*) connected with the gymnasiums, in spite of the urgent reasons brought forward by N. J. Pirogow, for abolishing these institutions. He compares them to hospitals: "Whatever has been done for the improvement of hospitals, there is no remedy for hospital diseases; neither large, roomy buildings, nor ventilation, nor cleanliness. In the beginning every thing goes well, but scarcely has a short time elapsed, and several sick persons have been together there, when lo and behold, the old diseases are there again. The same applies to the boarding-schools, and even in these model institutions, peculiar diseases, peculiar epidemics, creep in unawares; not hospital diseases, but if I may say so, educational diseases." However, all that was done were some slight modifications in the system. These boarding-schools (*Pensionen*) are only intended for pupils of the four lower classes, and only in exceptional cases pupils of the higher classes are permitted to stay. The boarding schools are maintained either at the expense of the treasury of the empire, or by the boarding-school fees and voluntary contributions. The boarders are either whole boarders or half-boarders, the latter only getting their dinner at the school. The number of boarders in one school is never to exceed 80; the director of the gymnasium is at the same time inspector of the boarding-school; the pupils are divided into room-companies of 20, under the charge of special tutors, (*Erzieher*), some of whom at the same time fill the office of teacher. Prior to the year 1828 only sons of noblemen were admitted in these boarding-schools, but at present they are open for all. The following table gives an estimate of the teachers, number of hours, &c., at one of the Russian gymnasiums:

	CLASSICAL GYMNASIA.					REAL-GYMNASIA.		
	With Latin and Greek.			With Latin.		Without Latin and Greek.		
	Persons.	Recitations.	Rubles (Silver) Salary.	Persons.	Recitations.	Rubles (Silver) Salary.	Persons.	Recitations.
Director,	1	—	house & 2,000	1	—	house & 2,000	1	—
Inspector,	1	—	house & 1,500	1	—	house & 1,500	1	—
Teacher of Religion,	1	14 1,020	1	14 1,020	1	14
“ “ Russian,	2	24 1,800	2	24 1,800	2	25
“ “ Natural Sciences { and Mathematics, {	2	34 2,400	2	34 2,400	4	57
“ “ Classical languages, {	4	58 4,900	3	39 2,880	—	—
“ “ German,	1	19 1,320	1	19 1,320	2	24
“ “ French,	1	19 1,320	1	19 1,320	2	22
“ “ Drawing and Cal- ligraphy,	1	13 600	1	13 600	1	21
“ “ History and Ge- ography,	1	22 1,500	1	22 1,500	1	22
“ “ Singing and Gym- nastics,	—	—	Remunera- tion.	—	—	Remunera- tion.	—	—
Tutor, (<i>Erzieher</i>),	2	—	house & 1,400	2	—	house & 1,400	2	—
Physician, (<i>Canzlei</i>),	1	— 300	1	— 300	1	—
Chancery,	—	— 700	—	— 700	—	—
Books and Apparatus,	—	— 400	—	— 400	—	—
Secretary and Librarian,	—	— 240	—	— 240	—	—
Keeping the buildings in repair,	—	— 2,000	—	— 2,000	—	—
	18	203	23,200	17	184	21,800	18	184
								22,290

The annual school-fee at the gymnasiums varies between 5 and 50 rubles; at the gymnasium at Kronstadt, for instance, it is 50; in St. Petersburg and Riga, 40; in Moscow and Dorpat, 30; in Kasan, Astrachan, Wilna, Minsk, &c., 20 rubles.

The improvement of the pecuniary position of the teachers was urgently demanded, if good and thorough men were to be induced to enter this field of labor. The former salary was utterly insufficient, (director, 800–1,000 rubles; first teacher, 600–750 rubles.) We are told on reliable authority that vacancies remained open for ten years and longer. Thus in Astrachan there was no instruction in mathematics, Russian, history, and geography, for the simple reason that it was impossible to procure teachers; from the same cause there was no instruction in German, &c., for 27 years, in French for 17, and in Latin for 13 years. The salary of the tutors in the gymnasium boarding-schools was formerly 124–300 rubles.

In 1865 the number of all the persons employed at the Russian gymnasiums was 2,312. The number of pupils was 26,789, of whom there belonged to the Orthodox-Greek Church, 19,123; to the Roman Catholic, 4,161; to various Protestant churches, 3,430; besides 37 Armenians, 990 Jews, and 48 Mohammedans; 18,660 were noblemen, 974 sons of clergymen, 5,554 burghers, 1,032 peasants, 569 foreigners. The result of the final examination in 1864 was the following: Of 997 pupils present in the 7th class on the 1st of June, 491 gained permission to enter the university, 221 were rejected, and 285 had to remain a second

Orthodox-Greek Church. The change in the educational system of Poland likewise deprived the Russian gymnasiums of many teachers, who, attracted by the promise of higher salaries, went to Poland to fill the vacancies at the Polish gymnasiums occasioned by the discharge of the native Polish teachers. On account of the great demand for teachers, many students had to leave the university before having completely finished their studies, and their inexperience could not remain without any influence on their pupils." Similar complaints are made in all the districts, particularly from the district of Kiew, from which a great number of teachers went to Poland during the last few years. The consequence of this whole movement is this, that many of the teachers at the gymnasiums in Russia proper consider their position only as a provisional one, as a period of transition till they can find a better place in Poland.

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Director,	1	—	house & 2,000	1	—	house & 2,000	1	—	house & 2,000
Inspector,	1	—	house & 1,500	1	—	house & 1,500	1	—	house & 1,500
Teacher of Religion, ..	1	14 1,020	1	14 1,020	1	14 1,020
“ “ Russian,	2	24 1,800	2	24 1,800	2	25 1,800
“ “ Natural Sciences (and Mathematics,)	2	34 2,400	2	34 2,400	4	57 4,140
“ “ Classical languages,	4	58 4,200	3	30 2,800	—	— —
“ “ German,	1	19 1,320	1	19 1,320	2	24 1,800
“ “ French,	1	19 1,320	1	19 1,320	2	25 1,650
“ “ Drawing and Cal- ligraphy,	1	13 600	1	13 600	1	20 880
“ “ History and Ge- ography,	1	22 1,500	1	22 1,500	1	22 1,500
“ “ Singing and Gym- nastics,	—	—	Remunera- tion.	—	—	Remunera- tion.	—	—	Remunera- tion.
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Physician, (<i>Canzlei</i>),	1	— 300	1	— 300	1	— 300
Chancery,	—	— 700	—	— 700	—	— 200
Books and Apparatus,	—	— 400	—	— 400	—	— 800
Secretary and Librarian,	—	— 240	—	— 240	—	— 240
Keeping the buildings in repair, ..	—	— 2,000	—	— 2,000	—	— 2,000
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year in the 7th class. Besides these, 859 other young men sent in their names for examination, of whom 687 actually appeared at the examination; of these, 236 gained permission to enter the university, whilst 451 were rejected.

The number of boarders in the 39 "boarding-schools" (*Pensionen*) was 2,759 whole boarders and 141 half-boarders; total, 2,900; of whom 85 were maintained by the Emperor and the Imperial family, 710 by the government, 39 by the "council of general care" (*Collegium der Allgemeinen Fürsorge*), 250 by various ministries, 314 by noblemen or their families, 169 by pious legacies, 55 by the boarding-school itself, whilst 1,137 paid their own expenses.

Praiseworthy efforts have been made to introduce greater strictness at the maturity-examinations. They take place at every gymnasium, if possible, in the presence of the curators, assistants, district-inspectors, and some professors from the university. The statistics of 1864 showed, that in the 60 gymnasia of the districts of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kasan, Kharkow, Kiew, and Dorpat, of 997 pupils in the 7th class who underwent an examination, only 491, or 49 per cent., were permitted to enter the university; of the remaining 506 scholars, only 221, or 22 per cent., received a certificate of having finished the course at the gymnasium, but without gaining admission to the university, and 285, or 29 per cent., had to remain a second year in the 7th class. As regards those young men, who, although not pupils of the gymnasium, underwent the examination in order to be permitted to enter the university, of 687, only 236, or 34 per cent., were admitted, whilst 451, or 66 per cent., were rejected. From the general reports of the curators we see, that as a general rule, the pupils of the gymnasia showed more proficiency in sciences than in languages.

The libraries, physical cabinets, &c., are in a very deficient state. According to the former estimate, 350 rubles were expended for these items. It is true that this sum has been increased, but so little that it is scarcely worth mentioning, to 400 rubles in the classical gymnasia and 800 rubles in the real-gymnasia. "The libraries," thus our reporter says, "utterly lack such books, which the teachers themselves might profitably study, and thus continue their own education. Of late, a number of books in the Russian language are bought for the libraries, but there are as yet scarcely any works in foreign languages. In many gymnasia there are no good wall-maps, &c. Just as unsatisfactory are the physical cabinets of the gymnasia; in most cases the apparatus, through the use of many years or by accidents, has become unfit for use. The collections of subjects of natural history are utterly insignificant. Almost all the gymnasia are located in buildings belonging to the government or to the borough, and many of them are very unsuitable and badly ventilated; some of the buildings are in a very dilapidated condition, and all of them are too small."

As regards the attendance at the various gymnasia, there are, accord-

ing to the latest information, on an average, 300–400 pupils at each; this number is only exceeded in exceptional cases, such as Moscow with 638 (in 1864,) and 595 (in 1865,) Kharkow with 586, Kiew with 628. As a general rule a class is divided into 2 parallel classes, when the number of scholars exceeds 40, and only in rare cases are there undivided classes of 50 and 60 pupils. This last-mentioned measure is not only in existence on paper, but has been actually carried out at all the Russian gymnasia.

From this short sketch it will be seen, that the Russian gymnasia are only but commencing to enter a period of development and progress, but that this beginning bids fair to lead to good results, chiefly because the right principles have been adopted to further the undertaking. But only when the abolition of serfdom shall have brought its full influence to bear on the primary-schools, and thoroughly prepared pupils are admitted to the gymnasia from among the mass of the people—only then will it be possible for them to reach the highest degree of perfection. Till quite recently the Russian gymnasia have been more or less educational establishments for the privileged classes of society; they will only then reach their true aim, when they have become institutions of higher culture for the whole nation. The recent organization of secondary instruction has this end in view, and we can but wish that the Russian government may be enabled to progress rapidly in the path on which it has so successfully entered.

As compared with the same class of institutions in Germany, it may be remarked, that in the Russian gymnasia the system of special teachers for every branch of studies is carried out more strictly than at the secondary-schools of Germany, and, as we believe, not always for the advantage of teachers and pupils. For on the one hand this system almost inevitably produces a certain one-sidedness, and on the other hand the demand on the pupils is almost necessarily increased in proportion to the number of special teachers. Pecuniarily, however, the Russian gymnasia are far better situated than the same class of institutions in Austria. For whilst the sum required for a gymnasium of eight classes in Austria amounts on an average only to 18,000 florins, (\$8,640,) the same kind of institution in Russia has an allowance of 23,200 rubles silver, (\$17,400.) The endowment of a gymnasium with the Latin language only, amounts to 19,880 rubles silver, and that of a real-gymnasium to 20,290 rubles. These larger sums are partly caused by the boarding-houses (*pensions*) connected with the Russian secondary-schools, thus increasing the number of teachers by 1 inspector, 2 educators, and 1 physician. But the chief difference lies in the salaries of the teachers, which in Russia are much higher than in Austria. It is likewise pleasing to notice that special stipends are paid by the government for instruction in drawing, singing, and gymnastics, whilst at the Austrian secondary-schools the compensation paid for these studies is derived almost exclusively from the small fees of the pupils.

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN RUSSIA.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

In Russia in Europe there were, in 1865: 1,760 public elementary schools, with 78,999 scholars. The number of private elementary schools under government inspection was 799, with 22,814 scholars. Under the superintendence of the Ministry of Imperial Domains there were 7,137 schools, with 226,996 scholars. The Ministry of the "Apanages" had 294 village schools, 1,046 parochial and private schools, 721 private borough-schools, and 111 schools in connection with the Mohammedan mosques. The ecclesiastical authorities of the Orthodox Greek Church have 8,587 elementary schools, with 320,350 scholars. The number of public elementary schools in Siberia was 86, with 2,494 scholars. In Poland the number of public elementary schools (in 1861) was 1,381, with 80,378 scholars. In Caucasia there were (in 1856) 74 schools, with 5,505 scholars. In Finland there were 14 upper and 57 higher elementary public schools, with about 9,000 scholars.

The number of district-schools (burgher-schools) in Russia in Europe (exclusive of Finland and Poland) and Siberia was (in 1865) 416, with 23,952 scholars and 2,743 teachers; and in Poland, 195 district schools.

The grand total is 61,000 elementary schools, exclusive of schools of the same grade specified below, with 1,500,000 pupils.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

In Russia in Europe (exclusive of Poland and Finland) there were, in 1865: 101 gymnasia, with 26,789 scholars and 2,312 teachers. In Finland there were 6 gymnasia; and in Poland 7 gymnasia, with 122 teachers and 2,172 scholars; and 17 philological schools, with 169 teachers and 2,856 scholars—making a total of 500 institutions of secondary instruction, with 100,000 pupils.

III. SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

There are in Russia in Europe, 6 universities (St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkow, Kasan, Dorpat, Kiew, Odessa,) with 5,314 students and 455 professors. In Finland there is one university at Helsingfors. Besides the university professorships, there are special theological seminaries belonging to the several religious bodies, and lyceums at Jaroslawl and at Njeschin, both preparatory for the civil service.

IV. SPECIAL AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

6 Teachers' seminaries (at St. Petersburg, Dorpat, Kiew, Kharkow, Molodatschno, and Wilna); 3 schools with a pedagogical course; and a special course for gymnasium teachers.

The following special institutions are under special ministries:

A. RUSSIA.

I. Institutions for Daughters of Nobles, Military Officers and Officials, under the immediate protection of the Imperial Family.

1 Smalnoa training establishment at St. Petersburg,	83 teachers,	392 scholars.
1 School of Order of St. Catherine at St. Petersburg,	56 " "	357 " "
1 " " " " " Moscow,.....	59 " "	288 " "
1 Patriotic institute for girls,	36 " "	244 " "
12 Other institutes for noble young ladies,.....	356 " "	1,589 " "
13 Second-class establishments,.....	426 " "	1,533 " "
12 Third-class establishments for girls of lower rank,	207 " "	953 " "

Establishments for Special Classes.

1 Nicholas orphan institute at St. Petersburg,	166 teachers,	793 scholars.
1 Nicholas orphan institute at Moscow,	108 " "	725 " "
1 Deaf and dumb school at St. Petersburg,.....	23 " "	65 " "
1 School of midwifery at St. Petersburg,.....	14 " "	131 " "
1 School of midwifery at Moscow,.....	16 " "	82 " "
1 Foundling hospital at Moscow.	40 " "	125 " "
5 Public gymnasia for young ladies.		

SPECIAL INSTRUCTION IN RUSSIA.

The following institutions are for males:

1 Alexander lyceum at St. Petersburg,	33 teachers, 126 scholars.
1 Deaf and dumb school at St. Petersburg,	13 " 101 "
1 Commercial school " "	35 " 299 "
2 Hospital-assistants' schools " "	11 " 85 "
1 Nicholas orphans' institute at Gatchina,	44 " 671 "
1 Section of the foundling hospital at Moscow,	21 " 96 "
1 Commercial school at Moscow,	24 " 121 "
1 Hospital-assistants' school at Moscow,	15 " 251 "
1 Mechanics' institute " "	18 " 290 "
1 School for masters for instructing in trade-schools,	14 " "

II. Special Schools under the Ministry of War.

1 Medico-chirurgical academy,	35 teachers, 978 scholars.
5 Surgeon-barbers' schools at the different military hospitals,	17 " 1,020 "
1 Topographers' school,	13 " 140 "
22 Military schools,	10,000 "
3 Artillery schools,	22 " 166 "
1 Nicholas staff-academy,	22 " 250 "
1 Nicholas higher engineer-school,	50 " 126 "
1 Michael artillery school,	32 " 117 "
1 Page-corps or college,	41 " 159 "
1 Ensigns' school of the guards,	31 " 206 "
22 Cadet corps, or military colleges for the guards and line,	723 " 7,440 "

III. Naval Schools under the Ministry of Marine.

1 Naval cadet-college,	92 teachers, 631 scholars.
1 Practical naval school for seamen,	15 " 553 "
1 Commercial navigation school at Cronstadt,	12 " 45 "
1 Pilots' school at Cronstadt,	32 " 355 "
1 Lower engineer and artillery school at St. Petersburg,	38 " 265 "
1 Black Sea pilots' school at Nicholaieff,	18 " 415 "
1 Naval school " "	18 " 415 "
1 Girls' institute " "	7 " 100 "

IV. Schools under the Ministry of the Interior.

19 Orphan houses,	754 pupils.
6 Foundling hospitals,	2,410 "
19 Schools for the children of chancery servants,	953 "
3 Hospital-assistants' schools,	199 "
1 School for hospital-servants' children,	42 "

V. Schools under the Ministry of Finance.

1 Mining institute,	37 teachers, 242 scholars.
1 Mining technical school,	36 " 21 "
1 Assaying school at St. Petersburg,	8 " 14 "
7 District foundry schools,	41 " 361 "
44 Lower foundry schools for the mint and mining, ..	131 " 3,957 "
1 Technological institute,	36 " 257 "
Sunday drawing-school connected with it,	3 " 72 "
1 Drawing-school at St. Petersburg,	11 " 646 "
1 Female division of the same,	7 " 215 "
3 Drawing-schools at Moscow,	24 " 667 "
Sundry primary schools for children employed in factory labor,	
Sundry private manufactory schools,	12 teachers, 478 "
1 Practical commercial academy at Moscow,	30 " 174 "
1 School of commercial navigation at Cherson,	9 " 48 "
1 " " " " " Riga,	1 " 10 "
1 School for masters of merchantmen at Archangel, ..	1 " 12 "
1 " " " " " " Remi,	1 " 9 "

SPECIAL INSTRUCTION IN RUSSIA.

VI. Schools under the Ministry of Public Works.

1 Institute of the roads' engineer corps,.....	50 teachers, 270 scholars.
1 Master-builders' school,.....	32 " 164 "
1 Signal and telegraph school.	

VII. Schools under the Ministry of Justice.

1 School of jurisprudence,.....	43 teachers, 231 scholars.
1 Preparatory class for the above school,.....	20 " 167 "
1 Constantine surveyors' school,.....	36 " 250 "
1 Writing school for copyists in government offices,	7 " 60 "
1 Surveying topographers' school,.....	23 " 200 "

VIII. Schools under the Ministry of the Imperial Domains.

1 Forest-academy at St. Petersburg,.....	} 599 scholars.
1 Course of forestry at Lissina,.....	
2 Schools for huntsmen,.....	
2 Schools for game-keepers,.....	} 857 scholars.
1 Academy of agriculture at Gorygoretsk,.....	
1 Academy of agriculture near Moscow,	
1 Academy of horticulture.	
18 Agricultural and horticultural schools.	

IX. Schools under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Institute of Oriental Languages at St. Petersburg.
Lazareff Institute, for do. at Moscow.

X. Academies, Museums and Agencies of Art, Science, &c.

Academy of the Fine Arts at St. Petersburg.
Hermitage Gallery and Museum.
Taurida Palace Museum of Sculpture.
Roumiantstoffs Museum.
Academy of Sciences.
Imperial Library at St. Petersburg (900,000 volumes.)
Yablonoff Cabinet of Art Curiosities.
Observatory at Poolkova.
Botanical Garden.
Museum of Russian Antiquities.
Museum of Technological Institute.
Museum of Rural Economy.
Museum of Mines and Metallurgy.
Museum of Natural History.

The above list includes only the most prominent institutions of this class.

B. POLAND.

- 1 Medico-chirurgical academy.
- 1 Nobility institute.
- 1 Government Ladies' boarding-school.
- 1 School of arts.
- 2 Technological high-schools.
- 1 School of agriculture and forestry.
- 1 Sunday commercial school.
- 1 Normal school for primary teachers.

C. FINLAND.

- 1 Cadet corps at Friedrichshamm.
- 3 Navigation schools.
- 3 Technological schools.
- 3 Commercial schools.
- 1 Institute for rural economy at Mustiala.
- 10 Agricultural schools.
- 6 Girls' schools (industrial.)

UNIVERSITIES, AND SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION

IN RUSSIA.

THE first higher institution of learning in Russia was founded by Peter the Great. It was connected with the Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg, and placed under its direction. This new institution had to struggle with great difficulties, as there frequently were neither teachers nor students, so that no lectures could be held; there was also a total lack of preparatory schools for this so-called university course. Schuwaloff, the favorite of the Empress Elizabeth, was more successful in calling to life the first independent university, at the advice of Lamonossow. The Empress Elizabeth, in 1755, confirmed the statute of the first Russian university at Moscow, which was organized completely after the model of the German universities. At the head of this university was a curator who was chosen by the government from among the magnates of the empire. Its immediate superintendence was in the hands of a director, who exclusively had to decide all economical (financial) and administrative questions, and only such as had reference to teaching, and questions of law regarding students or professors, were decided by the conference of professors, presided over by the director. The university had three departments—philosophy, law, and medicine. The total number of professors was ten. The lectures given in the philosophical department had to be attended by the students of the two other departments, and only after having passed an examination in philosophy were they permitted to enter upon the study of either law or medicine. Strict regulations provided that professors should hold their lectures in accordance with a prescribed programme, and not deviate in the least from the opinions of the authors chosen by the curator. The want of teachers was supplied by calling in foreigners. But in spite of this, there were times when important subjects were not taught at all. These foreign professors, who for the greater part could not speak Russian, had to hold their lectures in Latin, French, or German, and consequently very few of the students derived any benefit from these lectures.

In 1755, a gymnasium for teaching modern languages to candidates was established at Moscow. It had two divisions; one for noblemen, and one for the common people, and at times numbered as many as 1,000 scholars. The university, however, was, even at the end of the last century, not very well attended, and mostly by such students as were educated at the expense of the government. In 1768 a regulation was made that native Russians should deliver their lectures in the Rus-

sian language. The punishments inflicted on the students were mostly peculiar, such as incarceration, with a diet of bread and water; putting on peasants' clothes; reduction of the salary, and summary dismissal. The general supervision of the morals of the students was intrusted to censors and *ephori* chosen from among their number by the government.

The academy at Wilna (established in 1578) was, after the partition of Poland, joined to the University of Moscow; but its organization remained unchanged. The university at Dorpat, however, founded in 1682 by Gustavus Adolphus, ceased to exist after the Baltic provinces were conquered by Peter the Great, and those who wished to have a university education went to Germany. Important reforms were introduced by the Emperor Alexander I. Soon after the organization of the Ministry of Public Instruction, (Sept. 8, 1802,) the university at Dorpat received a new statute, and in the year following, the one at Wilna.

In pursuance of the decrees of 1803-4, all the universities of Russia proper were organized on a uniform plan, and received the title of Imperial Universities. The general superintendence was placed in the hands of a curator, who was a member of the "upper school-board," who was responsible to the Minister of Public Instruction; the details of the administration were left entirely to the faculties of the universities, as was likewise the administration of the school-district belonging to each university. The university appointed and dismissed inspectors and teachers, proposed directors of gymnasiums to the minister, and sent professors on journeys of inspection. The administration of the university was in the hands of the professors, who chose rectors and deans, (*Decani*.) Each university had four departments, viz.: Medicine, law, history and philology, physics and mathematics. The only difference between the various universities consisted in the number of professors. At the universities of Moscow, Kasan, and Kharkow, there were 28 ordinary professors; at Wilna, 32. The number of assistant professors at each university was 12; teachers of languages, 8; teachers of arts likewise 8. Only the university at Dorpat, attended by Protestants exclusively, had a theological department, with 4 ordinary professors; the departments of law and of medicine at the same university numbered 4 ordinary and 2 extraordinary professors each. The department of philosophy had four divisions, viz.: physics and mathematics, with 2 ordinary and 1 extraordinary professor; natural history, 3 ordinary professors; history and philology, 4 ordinary professors; technology and economy, 2 ordinary, and 1 extraordinary professor; teachers of languages, 6; teachers of arts, 6. To supply this large number of professorships, foreigners had of course to be called in, and about half of the places were filled by them. Only after a considerable period of time had elapsed, were the universities attended by a sufficient number of students. The university at St. Petersburg, originally a sort of normal gymnasium, was changed into a pedagogical institute, and (1825) organized on the plan of the Moscow University.

During the ten years (1820–1830,) the government greatly limited the authority of the faculties, and increased the power of the curators. The strict measures, which, during the sad period of the Carlsbad Resolutions, were taken with regard to the German universities, were imitated in Russia. A number of the most competent teachers were dismissed; the curators were commissioned to keep a strict lookout as to the tendency of the lectures. They had likewise to see to the discipline of the students, which was enforced by new and stricter regulations. Some German professors laid down their offices, and their places were supplied by men of very inferior ability.

In 1835, a new statute was drafted for the universities by a commission appointed for this purpose, and the Emperor Nicholas frequently attended their sessions and personally recommended various changes. The new law of organization contained 169 articles; according to this law, the universities were to consist of three departments; the department of philosophy to have two divisions. Every department had its own "dean," (*Decan*,) and that of philosophy, two. The Rector had the general supervision of all the departments. The university-council was composed of the ordinary and extraordinary professors, the Rector presiding. The board of administration consisted of the Rector, the "deans," (*Decani*,) and the "*Syndicus*." The universities were under the special protection of His Imperial Majesty, and were therefore called "Imperial Universities." The minor details of the administration were intrusted to a curator. The department of philosophy embraced the following subjects: I. Division—Philosophy; Greek antiquities and literature; Roman antiquities and literature; Russian language, and history of Russian literature; history and literature of the Slavic languages; general history; Russian history; statistics and political economy; Oriental literature; Arabian, Turkish, Persian, Mongolian, and Tartar languages. II. Division—Mathematics; astronomy; physics; physical geography; chemistry; mineralogy; geography; botany; zoology; technology; agriculture, and architecture. The department of laws embraced: Cyclo-pedia of jurisprudence; fundamental laws of Russia; Roman law and its history; civil, penal, and local laws; public morals and order; laws of finance and taxation; criminal laws; elements of national law. The medical department at the universities of Moscow, Kasan, and Kharkow, embraced: anatomy; physiology; pharmacology; clinical medicine; pathology; theoretical surgery; practical surgery; midwifery; veterinary surgery. At every university there were, besides, teachers of German, English, French, and Latin.

The university-council has to choose the rector, the honorary and corresponding members, the professors and assistant professors. It has likewise to investigate any neglect in the fulfillment of their duties on the part of the professors, to consider the publication of dissertations, and to propose new improvements. The university-curator was nominated by the Emperor; the choice of the rector had also to be sanctioned by him. The rector was always chosen for a term of four years. The

deans, (*Decani*), likewise chosen for four years, had to be confirmed by the minister; all these were chosen from the number of the ordinary professors. No one was permitted to become professor without having previously obtained the doctor's degree in that particular study which he intended to teach. To become assistant professor, he must at least have the degree of "licentiate." After serving twenty-five years, professors received the title, "*emeritus*," and their places were considered vacant. They might, however, be chosen again for five years, after which time the minister decided how long they might yet supply the place.

The course of studies in the departments of philosophy and of law lasted four years, and in that of medicine, five years. Each university had its own committee of literary censors, and books, journals, and periodicals destined for their use need not be submitted to the general literary censor. The universities had the privilege of erecting printing establishments and bookstores for their own use. The rector of a university belonged to the fifth grade or class in the general classification of society, (*Rangklasse*), the ordinary professors to the seventh, extraordinary and assistant professors to the eighth, teachers of languages and drawing to the tenth, doctors to the eighth, licentiates to the ninth, candidates to the tenth, and students who have successfully finished their course, to the twelfth class.* On entering the military service, students and licentiates had likewise special privileges. The former became officers after six months' service, and the latter after three months, even if there was no vacancy in the regiment.

The statistics with regard to the pupils and professors at the universities are very scanty; still they will convey some idea of the state of these institutions. The number of professors at the University of St. Petersburg was, in 1824, 88; 1831, 47; 1835, 64; 1851, 68. The University of Moscow, in 1808, had 49 professors; 1832, 78; 1833, 117; 1834, 167; 1851, 124. The University of Kharkow, in 1808, had 24 professors; the highest number in 1831 was 95; since then it has decreased; in 1850 it had 76. The University of Kasan had, in 1808, 15 professors; 1835, 89; 1851, 88. The University of Dorpat, during the years 1808-1851, wavered between 37 and 73 professors. The University of Kiew, in 1835, had 61, and in 1851, 86 professors. Whilst the government, from 1820 to 1830, in many ways limited the independence of the universities, the material position of the professors was considerably improved. In 1835 the salaries were fixed as follows:

* There are 3 titles of nobility, (princes, counts, and barons,) which descend to all children equally.

There are 7 orders of knighthood: St. George, (the highest and purely military, with 4 degrees;) St. Andrew; Vladimir, (4 degrees;) St. Alexander; White Eagle; St. Anne, (4 degrees;) St. Stanislaus, (3.)

There are practically 12 orders or classes of merit:—1, chancellor of the empire; 2, actual privy counselor; 3, past privy counselor; 4, actual state counselor; 5, past privy counselor; 6, college counselor; 7, court counselor; 8, college assessor; 9, titular counselor; 10, college secretary; 12, government secretary; 14, college registrar; 11 and 13, ceased.

The first eight classes give hereditary nobility, the last six only personal nobility. Mere noble birth does not give admittance to any of these classes, which is secured only by merit of some kind.

	St. Petersburg.	Moscow.	Kasan.	Kharkow.	Kiew.
Ordinary professors,.....	1,572	1,543	1,263	1,263	1,350
Extraordinary professors,	1,175	1,095	954	954	980
Assistant professors,.....	800	786	643	643	690
Teachers of languages, etc., ...	600	504	568	568	500
Prosecutors,.....	—	700	560	560	600
"Laborants,".....	428	428	336	336	443

All these sums are in rubles (silver,) (a 75 cents.)

A peculiar establishment in connection with the University of Dorpat was a separate professor-institute, with the object of educating competent professors for the Russian universities. Capable men were appointed by the government, and after having attended lectures at Dorpat, they were sent to foreign countries to complete their education. The University at Dorpat has, up to the most recent time, been a nursery of German science and German culture, and eminent German scholars have for a time or permanently been located there. The professor-institute has only existed for ten years, and has during that period educated 22 professors for Russian universities. The second division of the Imperial chancery (*Canzlei*) was, on the proposition of Count Speransky, used for the education of professors during the years 1828–1884, by introducing special courses for every science, to which the best students of the theological academies of St. Petersburg and Moscow were admitted, and afterwards sent to Berlin to complete their studies.

A period of restriction and depression in the history of the Russian universities commenced in the year 1848, and lasted till 1856. The administration of discipline, justice, and their own finances, was taken from them, and only technical changes with regard to the subjects of instruction, the choice of the rectors and professors, were left to them. The administration of discipline was confided to an inspector, chosen by the curator from the military or civil officials of the empire, and subordinate to that dignitary. The students were obliged to attend a great many lectures. The exclusion of scholars from deciding questions of vital interest to the university, made them naturally indifferent to its interests, and finally to science itself, and a stagnation of all scientific life was the natural consequence. On the other hand, the great number of subjects, which students were obliged to study, made them study these in a very superficial manner.

The universities were still further limited in their functions in the year 1849. The right of choosing the rector was taken away from the council; he was now nominated by the government. The number of students at each university was limited to 800; the instruction was regulated by very narrow-minded programmes, and the custom of sending scholars to German universities was entirely abolished. A childish fear of revolutionary ideas prompted the government to take these measures. In addition to all this, the salaries of the professors, fixed in 1835, no longer

sufficed, as prices had risen considerably, so that many of them were obliged to look out for some extra employment.

The desire for a radical change had long since made itself felt, and the government of the present Emperor, Alexander II, deserves the highest praise for having inaugurated these changes. The government went to work with great caution. The universities gradually recovered their lost privileges, and the statutes of 1835 were again introduced. A statute for the University of St. Petersburg, made by order of the ministry in the year 1858, was laid for its approbation before the professor-council of the University of Moscow and those of the other universities. A special committee, organized in 1861, and consisting, besides the curators of the school-districts, of eight professors, was commissioned to examine the various opinions passed on the statute, and on its basis to work out the plan of a statute for all the Russian universities. The elaborate treatise which they published as a result of their deliberations, was then again submitted to all the professor-councils, to clergymen and civil officers, translated into German, French, and English, and sent to prominent foreign scholars for their inspection. Among the Germans who passed an opinion on it and made their annotations, we notice Robert von Mohl, Roscher, Wächter, Rosenkranz, Olshausen, Käferstein, Berthold Auerbach, Döderlein, S. Schmitt, (Director of the Gymnasium at Weilburg,) Bursian, Osenbrüggen. All these opinions, annotations and remarks were published in two volumes, and submitted to the "Committee for higher instruction," (*Gelehrte Comité*), for a final revision. The work of this committee, after having been examined by the upper school-council, was then submitted to a committee of six dignitaries, chosen by the Emperor, was next laid before the "Council of the Empire," (*Reichsrath*), and was finally sanctioned by the Emperor, June 18, 1863, and adopted for the Universities of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kasan, Kharkow, and Kiew.

A modern Russian university, with three departments, (history and philology; physics and mathematics; laws,) was founded at Odessa, June 11, 1864, and opened, May 1, 1865. The University of Dorpat received its new statute, Jan. 9, 1865. The statute of 1863 gives back to the universities the administration belonging to the university-council, composed of ordinary and extraordinary professors, presided over by a rector chosen for four years and confirmed by the Emperor.

The rector is chosen by the council from among the number of ordinary professors, and confirmed by the Emperor. He calls, opens, and closes the sessions of the university-council, and presides at these sessions. In cases of special importance, where immediate action is required, he may act independently, but must at once inform the council, the directory, and the curator. He may grant the teachers of the university a furlough for a time not exceeding twenty-nine days; for any longer period, only with the sanction of the curator. In cases of sickness or absence, his place is taken by the pro-rector or one of the "deans," (*Decani*).

The university-council is composed of the rector as president, and all the ordinary and extraordinary professors of the university. Other university teachers may also be invited to take part in the discussions, but are only entitled to an advisory vote, if the council thinks it necessary to ask their opinion on any question. The sessions of the council must be held every month, and to pass any resolution, two-thirds of its members must be present.

Some questions are settled by the council alone, while others have to be confirmed by the curator or minister. Under this second head come measures relating to the expansion of the university's scientific sphere, the choice of teachers, "laborants," (assistants in the chemical laboratory,) conservators of museums, prosectors, assistants; furthermore, the choice of a pro-rector, inspector, the admission of "private professors," (*privat docenten*), the nomination of honorary members, the librarian and his assistants, the choice of other university officials, such as judges, &c.; the regulating and applying of the lecture-fees, the admission of the students to the university, the admission of other persons to the lectures, the duties of the students, the order of the university, and the punishments to be inflicted in case of transgressions.

The sanction of the minister is required for the following: Choice of the rector, the "deans," (*Decani*), the pro-rector, the inspector and professors; the dismissal of any of these officials; propositions for subdividing departments and combining various subjects in one professorship; the sending of young people to study at foreign universities, the foundation of societies for the encouragement of learning, the examinations for obtaining academical degrees. On taking the vote on any question, the younger members of the council have always to vote first; an absolute majority decides a question, and in case of an equal vote, the vote of the president becomes deciding.

The faculty of every department consists of ordinary and extraordinary professors, assistant-professors, and teachers. The number of "private professors," (*privat docenten*), is not limited in any way. Each department may, by a resolution of the university-council, sanctioned by the minister, be subdivided. At the faculty assemblies of a department, all ordinary and extraordinary professors ought to be present; the other members of the faculty may likewise attend, but assistant-professors are only entitled to vote after having taught for two years; the other teachers may vote on any question which refers to their special branch of teaching. The head of the faculty is the "dean," (*Decan*), who is chosen for a term of three years from among the ordinary professors, and confirmed by the minister. In cases of absence or sickness, the oldest professor presides. In the meetings of the faculty of a department, questions are discussed which may be either settled by them alone, or such as require to be submitted for revision and sanction to the council. Among the former may be mentioned measures for increasing the scientific activity, proposals for filling vacant professorships, the passing of an opinion on

works published by the university, as likewise on the programme of lectures. To the latter belong the choice of the "dean," (*Decan*), and secretary of the faculty; measures for filling vacant professorships; distribution of the various subjects of study; the subdivision of the department; the choice of gratuitous students, and of students who are to complete their studies at some foreign university, with a view to becoming afterwards professors at some Russian university; examination of the dissertations written for obtaining the various degrees; the choice of themes set by the university for the annual prize-essays; the awarding of the prizes and medals; the judicious distribution of the sums appropriated by government for the purchase of books and scientific apparatus. To pass a resolution, two-thirds of all the members must be present.

The curator of the school-district has to see to it that all the officials and persons belonging to the university fulfill their duties faithfully, and in extraordinary cases he is authorized to use all the means within his power to enforce the fulfillment of the laws. In such cases, however, he must immediately report to the minister. He lays before the university, for their decision, questions pertaining to it, as likewise questions of importance with regard to his own school-district.

The directory is composed of the "deans" (*Decani*) of all the departments, and the pro-rector, presided over by the rector. Where, in place of the last-mentioned official, there is an inspector, he takes part in the sessions, but has only a vote on questions referring to the students. The directory has likewise to decide in cases that naturally belong to its province; for instance, to grant the sum of, at most, 800 rubles (silver) over and above the sum fixed for the purchase of any book or apparatus; to make contracts for supplies of various kinds, not exceeding the sum of 5,000 rubles; to investigate the affairs of the students, if circumstances should seem to require it, and eventually to lay the case before the university court of justice. The matters, which have to be submitted to the curator, are the granting of pecuniary assistance to poor students, the granting of sums exceeding 800 rubles, and the making of contracts to the amount of 7,000 rubles. Every other matter must be referred to the minister.

The university court of justice is composed of three professors, chosen annually by the council. To provide for any cases of sickness or absence, substitutes are chosen at the same time. The curator has to confirm the persons elected. One of the judges and his substitute must belong to the law department. He presides at the sessions of the court; one of the other judges acts as secretary. The immediate control over the students is confided to a subordinate officer, who is either chosen by the council from among its members, and in that case has the title "pro-rector," or if not a member of the council, then styled "inspector." The pro-rector is chosen for three years, and confirmed by the Minister of Public Instruction. No one can be elected "inspector" who has not gone through a complete university course.

No one can become ordinary or extraordinary professor who does not possess the "doctor degree." To be admitted as salaried assistant-professor, the "degree of *magister*" is required; "private professors" (*privat docenten*) may only be candidates. They must write a dissertation, "*pro venia legendi*," and publicly defend it. Besides this, all those who solicit a place as professor, assistant-professor, or *privat docent*, must hold two trial-lectures in the presence of the whole faculty, one on some theme chosen by themselves, the other on a theme set by the faculty. If a professorship has become vacant, every member of the faculty has the right to propose a candidate; the election is by ballot; the result of the election has to be communicated to the council, and that candidate, who, in a ballot here, has the absolute majority, is considered as duly elected. If no one has the absolute majority, the vacancy is published in the papers. The election of professors has to be confirmed by the minister; that of assistant-professors and teachers by the curator of the school-district. In case a vacancy is not filled by the council during the course of one year, the minister has the right to fill it with a person of his own choice. Besides this, he is at liberty at any time to appoint persons as teachers. "Private professors," (*privat docenten*), as a general rule, receive no salary, but the council may, on motion of the faculty, give them a proper remuneration for their services. They are permitted to choose the subject of their lectures in accordance with the programme of the university, and to make use of the laboratories, museums, and scientific apparatus, by obtaining the special permission of the persons having the care of the same. They may also take part in the examination of those who wish to obtain the degree of "candidate" or "graduated student." They are finally privileged, in case of their obtaining a regular professorship, to count in the years spent as *privat docenten*, if they are to receive a pension, etc. If professors have served the full time entitling them to a pension, they must undergo a new election by the council, which is valid for five years. At the end of those five years, they must again be reelected for five years. Every one of these elections is only valid if the candidate has at least a majority of two-thirds of the votes. If this is not the case, the place is considered vacant. Those professors, who have retired from office and are enjoying a pension, have the privilege of using the apparatus and library of the university, and holding lectures, by special permission of the council and curator.

Only such young men are admitted to the university as have reached the seventeenth year of their age, and have satisfactorily finished a complete course at a gymnasium. The university-council, however, has the liberty to subject candidates for admission to another examination. The pupils of higher and middle-class institutions may likewise be admitted, if the ministry decides that the course of studies gone through is equal to that of the gymnasium.

The regular course of instruction occupies, for the medical department, five years, and the other departments, only four. The annual term com-

mences August 15, and ends June 1. Students, who have satisfactorily passed the examination and handed in a dissertation, receive the degree of candidate; those who have given sufficient proof of their knowledge by an examination, but whose dissertation has been rejected, receive the title of graduated students. To obtain the degree of "*magister*," another oral examination is required, and the public defense of a written dissertation. *Magisters*, who have handed in a dissertation and have publicly defended it, receive the "doctor" degree. The examination for obtaining the title of graduated student or candidate, embraces all the subjects contained in the programme of the department, and for those students who belong to the Orthodox Church, theology besides. All these degrees can only be taken in a certain order, and at certain stated intervals; candidates may, after one year, try for the "*magister*" degree, and after another year has passed, for the "doctor" degree.

We have mentioned already, that the new statute gives the council the right to divide the departments, with the minister's sanction, into sections, and some universities have actually done this. At the University of Kharkow, the department of physics and mathematics has been divided into three sections, viz., a mathematical, a physico-chemical, and one of natural history; the department of history and philology has likewise been divided into three sections, viz., historical sciences, ancient classical languages and literature, Russo-Slavic languages and literature. The law department has been divided into two sections, viz., jurisprudence, and political sciences. At the Wladimir University of Kiew, the former division of the department of physics and mathematics into two sections for mathematics and natural sciences, still exists; the department of history and philology has been divided into three sections—classical, Slavo-Russian, and historical. The law department is divided into two sections,—jurisprudence, and political sciences. At the University of Kasan, the department of medicine is divided into two sections—medical science and pharmacy. The department of physics and mathematics is divided into three sections—mathematical sciences and mechanics; astronomy and geology; physics, physical geography, and chemistry. The law department is divided into two sections—jurisprudence, and political sciences. The students of a certain section have only to consider those subjects as important, which are given on the programme of their section, whilst the other studies are only considered accessory. In consequence of these subdivisions of the departments, the conditions for obtaining the various degrees were somewhat altered by a new regulation of Jan. 4, 1864. At present, no examination is required for obtaining the "doctor" degree, but it is sufficient to hand in a dissertation on some subject of the section, and to defend it publicly.

The lecture-fees have been fixed at 50 rubles per annum in St. Petersburg and Moscow, and at 40 rubles at the other universities. Poor students are exempted from paying these fees. There are also stipends for such, which are granted by the council. In 1864 there were 874 sti-

pende to the amount of 168,087 rubles, distributed in the following manner: St. Petersburg—8, with 24,071 r.; Moscow—306, with 57,619 r.; Kasan—172, with 30,500 r.; Kharkow—171, with 87,082 r.; Kiew—110, with 18,815 r. Of these stipends, 590, to the amount of 115,932 r., can be bestowed by the Minister of Public Instruction.

The most important changes in the new statute relate to the number and the salaries of the professors, and the appropriations for libraries, apparatus, etc. In this respect the Russian universities vie with the oldest and wealthiest universities of other countries. The department of history and philology has been increased by four new professorships, viz.: for comparative grammar of the Indo-Germanic languages; history of general literature; theory and history of the fine arts; and church history. Political economy and statistics, formerly belonging to this department, have been thrown into that of jurisprudence. There are in this department 12 professors and 7 salaried teachers.

To the department of physics and mathematics have been added, physical geography, technological and organic chemistry. For mechanics, chemistry, mineralogy, botany, and zoölogy and physics, there are 2 professors for each, and 3 for mathematics. The total number of professors in this department is 16, and 8 salaried teachers.

The law department has been increased by professorships for economy and statistics; history of the most important foreign laws of ancient and modern times; law of states; history of the Slavic laws; history of Russian laws. There are in this department 18 professors and 6 teachers.

The department of medicine has been increased by the following professorships: Medical chemistry and physics, (2 professors and 4 teachers;) embryology; histology and comparative anatomy. There are in this department 16 professors and 17 teachers.

At the University of St. Petersburg there is, since 1854, a department for oriental languages, where the following languages are taught: Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Tartar, Chinese, Mandschoorian, Mongolian, Kalmuck, Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldaic, Greek, Armenian, Sanscrit; and history of the Orient. This department has 9 professors, 1 assistant-professor, and 4 teachers.

The salaries of ordinary professors at all the Russian universities are fixed at 8,000 rubles; extraordinary professors get 2,000; assistant-professors and adjuncts, 1,200; teachers, 1,000; pro-rectors, 1,500, (with the exception of St. Petersburg and Odessa;) laborants, 800. The rectors receive in addition 1,500 rubles, and "deans," (*Decani*), 600.

The "order of rank" (*rangclasse*) of the professors was likewise raised, which is of great importance in a country like Russia. The rector was raised from the 5th to the 4th class; the ordinary professors from the 7th to the 5th class; the extraordinary professors from the 8th to the 6th class.

In order to form a proper estimate of the munificence recently displayed by the Russian government, it will be well to compare the sums granted to the different universities in 1885 with those granted in 1868:

	1835.	1863.
St. Petersburg,	77,705 rubles.	318,146 rubles.
Moscow,	120,712 "	412,118 "
Kasan,	105,771 "	347,579 "
Kharkow,	105,771 "	338,829 "
Kiew,	102,831 "	345,710 "
Total,	507,790 rubles.	1,762,382 rubles.

With regard to the special preparation of professors, it was decreed that the best and most promising gratuitous students might remain at the university even after having finished their course, in order to prepare themselves for a professorship; and that deserving students should be sent to foreign universities for the same purpose. The introduction of the system of *privat docenten* has been very beneficial in this respect, as a large proportion of them afterwards become professors. During the years 1862 and 1863, no less than 63 students were sent to foreign countries, at an expense to the government of 80,000 rubles.

The number of university students is steadily increasing, as the following table will show :

	St. Petersburg.	Moscow.	Kharkow.	Kasan.	Dorpat.	Kiew.
1808,	—	135	82	40	193	—
1824,	51	820	337	118	365	—
1830,	202	754	308	113	619	—
1834,	230	456	389	238	524	—
1836,	299	441	332	191	536	203
1840,	433	932	468	237	540	140
1846,	700	1,099	486	418	574	549
1850,	387	821	394	309	554	553
1855,	399	1,203	483	340	618	616
1860,	1,278	1,653	512	411	540	1,049
1862,	409	1,744	713	444	537	1,062

There are no statistics giving the different nationalities of the students, but the different classes of society to which the students belonged are entered from the year 1858. Of the 5,004 students at these six universities registered since that date, 68 per cent. were noblemen; 9 per cent. belonged to the clerical profession; 7 per cent. were sons of merchants; 12 per cent. middle class tradesmen; peasants or farmers, only 0.6 per cent. According to their religious creed, 54 per cent. belonged to the Orthodox Greek Church, and 46 per cent. to other churches and denominations—whilst of the total population, 55,000,000 belong to the Orthodox Greek Church, and only 16,000,000 to other churches and denominations! On the 15th of December, 1864, the number of students at the Universities of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kasan, Kharkow, Kiew, and Dorpat, was 4,084. According to the various departments of study, they were distributed in the following manner :

	Theology.	Oriental Languages.	History and Philology.	Physics and Mathematics.	Law.	Medicine.
St. Petersburg,.....	—	16	34	302	271	—
Moscow,.....	—	—	85	380	678	372
Kasan,.....	—	—	35	79	156	55
Kharkow,.....	—	—	26	112	299	106
Kiew,.....	—	—	46	141	200	131
Dorpat,.....	81	—	43	68	167	201
Total,.....	81	16	269	1,082	1,771	865

Of these 4,084 students, 2,638 belonged to the Greek Church ; 564 were Catholics ; 743 Protestants ; 129 Jews ; 10 Mohammedans.

There were 2,744 noblemen and officials, and 888 of the clerical profession ; born in cities, 364 ; born in the country, 570 ; foreigners, 18.

The number of "free" students was 557.

The University of Dorpat has, in certain particulars, a different organization. There are five departments—theology ; law ; medicine ; history and philology ; physics and mathematics. The theological department has 5 professors ; law, 6 ; medicine, 11 ; philology and history, 9 ; physics and mathematics, 9. Nobody can become a professor at this university who has not distinguished himself by some literary work. To become ordinary professor, a person must have obtained the "doctor" degree ; to become extraordinary or assistant-professor, the degree of *magister* is sufficient. The "*venia legendi*" is granted after a dissertation has been handed in. The professors chosen by the council have to be confirmed by the curator. If a vacancy has been left for a whole year, the minister may fill it ; he can at any time appoint extraordinary professors. Professors have to teach at least six, and assistant-professors four hours per week. There is a Summer vacation from June 10 to August 10, and one in Winter from December 20 to January 12. The university has its own committee of censors for all books and pamphlets published at the university printing-office. Foreign books, periodicals, etc., are received free of tax and unopened. The salaries are smaller than at the other universities. Ordinary professors receive 2,400 r. ; extraordinary professors, 1,700 r. ; pro rectors, 800 to 1,700 ; assistant-professors, 900.

The new statute likewise provides for the libraries and other scientific institutions. To these latter belong, the astronomical observatory ; the cabinet for practical mechanics ; the physical cabinet and physical laboratory ; the chemical cabinet ; the mineralogical cabinet and laboratory ; the cabinet for physical geography ; the meteorological observatory ; the geological and palæontological cabinet ; the botanical garden ; the botanical cabinet ; the zoölogical cabinet and laboratory for taxidermists ; the zoötomical cabinet and laboratory ; the physiological cabinet ; the cabinet for technical chemistry ; the cabinet of agronomic chemistry ; the museum of physiological anatomy ; the museum of histology, with a large number of microscopes ; the pharmaceutical laboratory ; the surgical

cabinet, with a complete collection of surgical and ophthalmological instruments; the museum of midwifery and diseases of women and children; theoretical clinics for therapeutics, surgery, and midwifery; hospital clinics for therapeutics, surgery, diseases of the nerves, insanity, diseases of the skin, ophthalmology, and syphilitic diseases; the museum of antiquities, and the large collection of coins and medals.

The Russian universities have as yet to battle with a great many difficulties. There is still a great lack of competent teachers; the number of *privat docenten* is still small, and in view of all these circumstances the Ministry of Public Instruction deserves great praise for all it has done to remedy the evil as soon as possible. Quite a number of young men have, during the last few years, been sent to foreign countries to prepare themselves for professorships at home. They receive an annual subsidy of 1,600 rubles, (silver,) and are under the special superintendence of one of the most spirited men of modern Russia, N. J. Pirogow, whose work on the reorganization of the Russian universities is thoroughly classical and exhaustive. The candidates are obliged to give regular accounts of their progress, which are published in the Journal of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and sent to all the universities. The expense of this whole institution amounts to from 80,000 to 100,000 rubles per annum.

The new statute of the universities must be considered as a great and important step forward, as it does not confine the lectures in a narrow-minded spirit, but on the other hand makes the material position of professors and teachers more agreeable, does not demand any confession of faith before obtaining a degree or any place at the university, and does not make a single one of these institutions peculiarly and exclusively Orthodox-Greek. Especially with regard to Russian language and literature, geography and oriental languages, the Russian professors have displayed a praiseworthy activity.

Though we must acknowledge the progress that has been made, we can not but call the very complicated mechanism of administration decidedly detrimental. In the new statute there are some paragraphs which give too free a scope to arbitrariness; for instance, that the minister may, in certain cases, appoint professors. By this clause all the other regulations concerning the election of professors by the faculties and council may become illusory. Many improvements are only found on paper, and it may be some time before they become realities; thus the regulations concerning the scientific institutions in connection with the universities. The libraries and apparatus of some of the universities are still in a sad condition, and even Russian reports lay great weight on the fact that very much is yet wanting in this direction.

The Russian universities were increased by one, through the change of the lyceum at Odessa into a university with three departments, (history and philology; physics and mathematics; and law.) It was opened, May 1, 1865.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PORTUGAL.*

TERRITORY—POPULATION—HISTORY.

THE KINGDOM of Portugal extends 350 miles on the Atlantic, with an average breadth of 115 miles, having an area of about 35,268 square miles, and a population in 1858 of 3,923,000, distributed as follows:

PROVINCES	DISTRICTS.	SQ. M.	POPULATION.
Alemtejo.....	Beja, Evora, Portalegre.....	10,255	304,404
Algarve.....	Faro.....	2,099	152,784
Beira.....	Aveiro, Castello, Coimbra, Guarda, Viseu...	8,586	1,186,598
Estramadura.....	Leiria, Lisbon—Santarem.....	8,834	755,122
Minho.....	Braga, Sorto, Vianna.....	2,671	800,479
Tras-os-Montes.....	Braganza, Villa Real.....	4,066	324,296
Azores.....	Angra, Horta, Ponta Delgada.....	715	240,113
Madeira.....	Funchal.....	317	96,620
		<hr/> 37,514	<hr/> 3,923,400

The population of Portugal in Europe in 1866, had increased to 4,851,519, and her colonial possessions in Africa, Asia, and Oceanica had 8,881,022 inhabitants.

PORTUGAL has no natural boundary, separating it from Spain; but the determined will of its people alone has preserved its national independence. The Romans, the Goths, and the Moors, successively imposed upon the descendants of the old Lusitanians the yoke of foreign dominion; the first leaving a system of regular municipal organization, and the second laying the foundation of the assemblies, afterwards called the Cortez; but neither effecting any material change in the original type of the inhabitants or producing any disposition to assimilate with their neighbors. The Lusitanians, having conquered the Arabs throughout the Pyreneean peninsula, after sharing for a time the glory of the Spanish Knights, formed a separate kingdom under a French dynasty in 1139.

Henry of Burgundy, a descendant of Hugh Capet, came into Spain to fight the Moors, and in 1095, married Theresa, the natural daughter of Alphonzo VI, King of Leon and Castile, and by him was made Count of Portugal, that name first appearing in history as applied to the province of Beira. At the death of his father-in-law, Henry assumed the title of King, in 1139, and declared himself absolved from Castilian supremacy, and relying upon the Pope as lord paramount, for protection against Castilian claims. In the following century the constitution of Portugal was made to assume a form which it has retained, substantially, until the present time, the Burgundian dynasty having secured general respect abroad and contributed much to the progress of civilization at home. Having expe-

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cabinet, with a complete collection of surgical and ophthalmological instruments; the museum of midwifery and diseases of women and children; theoretical clinics for therapeutics, surgery, and midwifery; hospital clinics for therapeutics, surgery, diseases of the nerves, insanity, diseases of the skin, ophthalmology, and syphilitic diseases; the museum of antiquities, and the large collection of coins and medals.

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rienced a partial relapse into ignorance, under priestly dominion, it again emerged in the latter part of the 13th century, through the influence of the King, Dom Diniz, so that it was recognized as one of the most cultivated countries of Europe. This prince (Dionysius) was surnamed the "husbandman" or King of Agriculture, of whom the people still say:

O rei Dom Diniz

Que fiz quanto quis!

(King Dom Diniz did just—what he chose!)

In consequence of his training by his instructor, Aymeric Ebrard, a French prelate, King Diniz was not satisfied to encourage agriculture alone, but endeavored to disseminate knowledge on every subject possible.

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

Having a taste for literature and science he labored to inspire a love for the same among his people. In 1290 he founded at Lisbon the celebrated university, which, after several changes of locality, is now flourishing at Coimbra. He also interested himself in the education of the poorer classes of his people, founding elementary schools, whose object, as he declared, was to enlighten the masses so as to enable them to protect themselves against the prevailing superstitions and senseless impositions of the clergy. Among his successors Dom Duarte and his son Alphonso V, who founded the first Royal Library in Portugal, exercised a healthful influence over the scientific culture of the country. The latter especially, endeavored to keep himself acquainted with the progress made by the University of Paris, but, although considering the circumstances of the time, the University of Coimbra was brought up to a high standard, the masses did not reap any great educational advantage from these labors.

No records of elementary schools are found until the 18th century. A report left by Ferdinando Denis, however, states that in 1551 there were in Lisbon seven teachers of Grammar, thirty-four teachers of Latin, thirteen public schools for instruction on the organ, fourteen dancing schools, and four Fencing Academies, besides many private teachers of fencing, employed by the nobility. There were only two female teachers to teach girls to read; while at the same time there were twelve *public writers*, and four hundred and thirty jewellers! A Venetian ambassador, at the end of the 16th century, reported that though there were many Portuguese, Italian, and Latin books in Lisbon, the poorer students could not afford to purchase them, but rented those they used from day to day. The principal school in the city was that of Santa Crux, employing several teachers from Paris, and highly praised by the historians of the time. In 1539, when Camoens was a student at Coimbra, the college was in a flourishing condition. Prof. Diego de Gorea, who afterwards introduced Buchanan there, and who advocated the Aristotelian philosophy against Peter Ramus, was considered one of the most learned students of Europe, in the Humanities. The German Vincent Fabricius there learned the Greek language so perfectly that Clenardus went into ecstasies over it, and many other distinguished teachers connected with the college gave it a wide and enviable fame.

The House of Aviz, 1385-1580, succeeded the House of Burgundy ; and it was during this period that the colonial power of Portugal was extended. In 1498 Vasco de Gama visited the Indies and founded colonies there ; in 1500 Alvarez Cabral discovered Brazil, and the riches which flowed into Lisbon, as a consequence of these enterprises, produced effeminacy among the people, while at the same time, the activity of the Inquisition degraded their spiritual and moral sense. The sixty years of Spanish dominion which followed were darkened by fanaticism in religion, and by tyranny and the greatest disorder in the administration of the government. The navy was ruined and the rich possessions beyond the sea fell to the Netherlands. At length, driven to desperation by the tyranny of Olivares, the minister of the feeble-minded Philip VI, the Portuguese revolted, and at last, in 1640, recovered their independence, and confided their future destiny to the House of Braganza. Peace being concluded with Spain in 1688, the possessions of Portugal in Africa and Brazil were restored ; but the people were sunk in ignorance and superstition ; commerce languished, and the land remained uncultivated, while the Jesuits and nobility exhausted upon themselves the revenues of the kingdom.

SCHOOLS OF THE SOCIETY OF JESUS.

In 1540 two Jesuit Fathers came to Portugal, at the request of Dom José, the king, one of whom was Francis Xavier, who left in the following year for the Indies. The king then established near the college of Coimbra a school of the society of Jesus, and the college itself soon fell into the possession of this society. Here the so-called liberal arts were taught, together with the languages, including the Greek and Hebrew, the higher sciences, and philosophy. The Fathers received from the king equal rights with the university, of which they claimed to be independent. At length a contest arose between the university and the school of the society of Jesus, which was finally decided in favor of the order, notwithstanding the earnest protest of the people. In 1550 the king in person located the richly endowed institution in a beautiful building which he himself had planned. From this time the Jesuits continued to gain control over the university until at last the education of the students fell entirely into their hands. The college at Coimbra had usually two thousand students, under the instruction of the Jesuits, and by the triumphant opposition of its philosophic catechism to the invasion of modern ideas, it arrested in no small degree the progress of Portugal. The Jesuits formed an actual state within the state, exercising a powerful influence for two hundred years in such a way as to paralyze the vital energy of the nation.

But Pombal, the minister of Dom José, cut the gordian knot, extending his enthusiastic activity over the army, the navy, agriculture, and public instruction. He commenced by the expulsion of the Jesuits and the sequestration of their property, taking the second step, however, before the first, in the attempt to carry out his despotic innovations. He died in disgrace, abandoned and alone. But ideas set in motion by him sur-

vive. With one stroke of the pen the order of Jesuits was driven from its twenty-four great colleges, and seventeen residences.

At the same time, (July 28, 1759,) a decree was issued to secularize the instruction; and Faculties of Philosophy and Mathematics were attached to the University of Coimbra. Previous to 1772 there were only four hundred primary schools in the whole kingdom of Portugal.

The Greek and Latin were taught only in convents. Pombal established two hundred and fifty-seven Latin primary schools, and introduced twenty-one chairs of Rhetoric and History, together with schools of Philosophy, Logic, Metaphysics and the Moral Sciences, and provided for their support and supervision. He also provided for the endowment and supervision of seminaries for the priesthood. The plan of reform for the University of Coimbra was modeled after the Italian universities, then in a flourishing condition. But after Pombal's fall (1777) everything resumed its former course. The ignorant clergy and the nobility full of prejudice, again took in hand the conduct of public affairs; academic instruction became such a farce, that a diploma could be obtained by sending a servant with the examination fee to the court which conferred them. The elementary schools declined, so that the number of pupils was reduced from 24,000 in 1807 to an average of 8,000 in 1828.

The mental condition of Queen Mary, mother of the late king, who died in 1786, required the appointment of the heir apparent, the Prince of Brazil, as regent; and he, by bringing upon himself the ill-will of Napoleon I, was forced by the march of Junot into Portugal, in 1807, to flee to Brazil, and the reign of the House of Braganza in Portugal thus came to an end. After the revolution in 1820, the king returned to Portugal, but the state of affairs remained unsettled for a long period, and from 1836 to 1851, within a space of fifteen years, there were no less than seventeen revolutions in Portugal. The accession of Dom Pedro gave promise of a more prosperous condition of affairs; but this good and much beloved sovereign died November 11, 1861. His brother, Dom Louiz, educated in liberal ideas, has endeavored to carry out many of the reforms planned by Pombal. Violent political movements now seem to be at an end, and the Lusitanian nation, so long kept down by popular ignorance, and selfishness on the part of its leaders, is again gradually assuming its former rank among the advanced nations of Europe.

Public instruction during this period of revolutions and changes of administration in government was naturally neglected. Until 1834, when the Liberal party, so called, had gained control of affairs, classical instruction was in the hands of the clergy and religious orders; but at this time it was taken up by the laity. Although the constitution of 1826 secured to all Portuguese the right of elementary instruction, no announcement of the organization of schools where the arts and sciences could be taught took place until 1836; and when the general attention was once directed to these reforms they were carried out in many cases with more zeal than wisdom. The want of normal schools and of good teachers hindered the efforts of the government in this direction for a long time.

I. ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

Legislation.—Doctor José Alexandro de Compos, Vice Rector of the Coimbra University, prepared and made public on the 15th of November, 1836, a general system for the reorganization of schools for public instruction, carefully arranged as to its several parts, and embracing all grades of public schools. According to this system all heads of families were obliged to send their children to school, and the duty of parents, pastors and teachers to take an active interest in education was enjoined. The regulations of 1844 go still further, fixing a penalty of rebuke or fine upon parents and guardians who fail to send their children to school from the age of seven to fifteen, if they live within a quarter of a league of the institution. Parents or guardians of children who allowed them to reach the age of fifteen without knowing how to read and write, were themselves to lose their political rights for five years. Primary instruction was free, and there were many private schools founded by municipalities, church assemblies, or brotherhoods; all subject to state supervision. The instruction in these schools was so far secular, that the clergy could not interfere. Every lesson, however, was to be begun and closed with prayer, and the teacher was bound to take his pupils every Sunday to Mass, and to see that they were provided with prayer books, and that they were instructed in the fundamental christian doctrines.

The regulations of 1844 were complicated and in advance of the period. The primary schools existing at the time of the adoption of the regulations were retained as schools of the first degree, in which were taught reading, writing, the general principles of morality and christian doctrine, politeness, grammatical exercises, elementary geography, and the history of Portugal. Schools of the second degree embraced a series of studies somewhat higher. There were school commissioners, whose duty it was to enforce the regulations, and to report to the Supreme Study Council.

The school houses belonged partly to the state and partly to the civil communities or parishes; and houses were provided where the sexes could be taught separately. The expenses for furniture and repairs also, fell upon the communities, the funds being obtained from the income of the community, or of the parish associations. A report was annually made of the expenses, to the district council, who determined the amount each corporation should contribute.

By the regulation of 1844, Normal Schools were provided for. This measure was due to Duke de Loulé, president of the Ministers' Council. While at the head of the ministerial affairs of the interior he founded two normal primary schools in the capital; one for male and the other for female teachers. The course of study prescribed for the normal schools was appropriate; and in order to secure the first degree, must be continued for one year; to secure a diploma, it must be continued two years. Candidates for admission to the school must be eighteen years of age, and understand the fundamental rules of arithmetic, the principles of grammar, and all the dogmas of the religion of the state. They must also be free

from any contagious disease, and of good character. A small annual sum was given to each pupil, in aid of the expense; but this might be withheld by the principal, for bad conduct. The pupils were not liable to be called on for military service. The yearly expenditure for each of the normal schools is about 6000 florins.

The Normal School of Lisbon went into operation on the 24th of December, 1845, being located in a magnificent building. The programme was so arranged as to be readily made to accommodate the two courses. The students had an opportunity for exercise in gymnastics, and in teaching a well organized primary school; of working in a garden, and of trimming the trees. The school was conducted by a principal and three teachers, who constituted the school council, the principal alone, however, having the actual administration and management of the school. The yearly salary of the principal was 666 florins and a free residence. A branch of the Normal School at Lisbon was opened in 1856 at Santarem.

Teachers of primary schools, as well as those of secondary schools and colleges, are styled professors, while the deans of universities have another title. In order to obtain the title of Professor, one must sustain an examination in public, before a jury consisting of a President, Secretary, and three or four others; must be twenty-one years of age, and possess a certificate of health and morals, signed by the pastor and the district committee of the place where he has resided for three years preceding, at least. The examination is rather directed to ascertain the maturity of mind of the candidate, than his actual acquirements. The report of the examination is sent to the Supreme Study Council, with a special report of the civil, moral and religious qualities of each candidate, his capacity in each particular branch, and the rank he holds in comparison with others. The Supreme Council give a preference to those who have attended a normal school; and of such, they prefer those of the most experience; when two diplomas bear the same date the preference being given to the older person of the two. The examination having proved successful, a nomination to a vacant situation of the first degree follows, either for life or for three years only. A situation of the second degree is always for life; and nominations for life are made by a royal decree, given by the minister of the interior, on the recommendation of the Supreme Study Council. A newly elected teacher must be at his post within four months succeeding his election, or he will be considered as having resigned the position. The salary of a primary teacher in Lisbon, Porto and Funchal is 250 florins; but it is less in other parts of the kingdom. While exercising their profession, teachers are free from all taxes and from military service. They can be removed only by a joint resolution of the Supreme Study Council and the Court; but they are subject to disciplinary punishment, consisting of warnings, reproofs, fines, suspension of salary in part or wholly, and dismissal, for certain specified offences.

Pensions.—A teacher of one class, after ten years service, may retire with one-fourth of his salary; after fifteen, one-third; after twenty-five, with one-half; and after thirty-five, with the whole. Teachers of another

class may retire after ten years, with one-third of the salary, and after twenty-five years, with the whole. Those who have a claim to a pension, but still remain in service, have their salary increased.

Incentives.—Rewards to the amount of $333\frac{1}{3}$ florins are offered to the authors of the best text books, the prize works remaining the property of the author, unless he chooses to give them up to the government; but in order that they may be introduced into the schools, they must be printed under certain conditions and their price fixed by the government. In certain localities, teachers who have more than sixty pupils, receive an addition of $16\frac{2}{3}$ florins to their salary; in other localities, the same increase is made for forty pupils. Teachers whose pupils excel in progress, receive honorable mention in the annals of the Supreme Study Council; and all who by teaching, render important services to the state, may receive rewards of honor, according to their rank in society.

Girls' Schools.—Previous to 1836 the education of girls was much neglected, there being no schools for them even in the principal cities. Their establishment commenced at that time; and in 1844 the principal places had such schools. The programme for girls' schools embraces the same elementary studies as the schools for boys, and needle work.

Female teachers were required to be at least thirty years of age, to be able to pass an examination equal to that required for male teachers of the first degree, and also to be competent to teach needle-work. In Lisbon and other large places, the salary of female teachers was $166\frac{2}{3}$ florins; in other places, 150. Normal Schools for girls might be opened in convents, children asylums, etc.

Supervision.—At the head of the educational system, by the regulations of 1845, is the Supreme Study Council, with the Secretary of the Interior as President, and the rector of the University of Coimbra or his delegate, a section director or reporter, as Vice President; with eight regular judges and a large number of extraordinary judges, a chief secretary, and many inferior officers. The regular judges are selected from men distinguished for learning and good character; the extraordinary judges are professors from Coimbra, or graduates of that university.

In 1854 not more than one-third of all the parishes were supplied with schools. The state was then earnestly engaged in establishing institutions of learning and opening private schools. The King set the example by opening a model school in his palace at Mafra, at his own expense. The prejudice of parents, particularly against the instruction of girls, was the greatest obstacle to the progress of primary instruction. "Many parents," says Vogel, "consider their daughters in danger of absolute ruin, if they learn how to write and read, be it ever so little!" Although there has been great improvement since that time, the want of good teachers prevents the progress desired.

The following table for 1854 was published by Minutoli; and that showing the changes from 1854 to 1862, was prepared by Mathias de Carvalho, for the International Social Science Congress, at Berlin in 1863.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN THE RELIGIOUS FRATERNITIES AND DISTRICTS IN 1864.

PROVINCES.	Municipalities.	Parishes.	Population.	SCHOOLS.			PUPILS.		
				Boys.	Girls.	Total in Dis. Prov.	Boys.	Girls.	Total in Dis. Prov.
Alentejo,	Beja,	106	131,333	48	1	44	1,298	67	1,865
	Evora,	14	83,356	28	1	29	577	63	940
	Portalegre,	10	80,312	39	1	40	186	80	166
Algarve,	Faro,	64	141,017	27	2	29	358	108	974
	Aveiro,	21	212,991	67	1	68	4,002	59	4,111
	Castellobranco,	16	188,867	48	1	49	1,725	88	1,794
Beira,	Coimbra,	83	256,867	69	1	70	1,981	72	2,068
	Guarda,	80	198,332	91	1	92	3,561	42	2,803
	Viseu,	40	298,017	127	2	129	4,380	151	4,681
Estremadura,	Leiria,	16	138,414	40	1	41	955	94	1,059
	Lisbon,	38	455,217	185	10	195	2,408	687	8,076
	Santarém,	22	164,580	51	1	52	941	84	978
Minho,	Braga,	19	298,844	76	1	76	4,483	40	4,483
	Porto,	21	266,212	58	6	64	1,169	8	1,174
	Viana,	13	187,791	44	1	45	2,761	80	2,761
Tras-os-montes,	Braganza,	19	126,437	55	1	56	263	25	353
	Villareal,	23	153,391	66	1	69	90	25	115
	Horta,	8	69,837	12	1	13	603	74	677
Adjacent Islands,	Angra,	9	108,464	13	1	14	632	140	762
	Funchal,	7	88,391	9	1	10	616	70	720
	Ponta Delgada,	6	97,330	14	2	16	730	144	974
		412	3,514,771	1,198	46	1,189	34,559	1,916	35,465
		3,938				1,169			25,465

*It seems impossible this should be the right number of girls, for there are 6 girl schools. There is a difference between the two tables for 1864, and we have no official documents to ascertain which is correct. We think Mr. de Carvalho's statement the most correct.

TABLE.—PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, 1854 to 1862.

YEARS.	PUBLIC SCHOOLS.						PRIVATE SCHOOLS.					
	SCHOOLS.			PUPILS.			SCHOOLS.			PUPILS.		
	For Boys.	For Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	For Boys.	For Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1854-55	1,222	69	1,291	53,963	2,400	55,891	486	487	973	17,811	9,146	26,446
1855-56	1,246	87	1,333	56,230	8,496	64,726	539	341	880	18,940	6,265	25,195
1856-57	1,368	101	1,469	67,774	4,322	72,096	320	344	664	13,720	6,584	20,304
1857-58	1,407	121	1,528	61,585	5,194	66,749	294	177	471	10,425	6,104	16,529
1858-59	1,411	129	1,540	61,094	6,438	67,542	223	258	481	10,230	6,322	16,552
1859-60	1,437	149	1,586	65,606	7,335	72,941	443	407	850	14,101	9,117	23,218
1860-61	1,444	172	1,616	68,051	8,231	76,282	501	566	1,067	16,443	11,917	27,360
1861-62	1,699	189	1,788	70,720	8,462	79,172						

According to Minutoli there was a retrograde step from 1851 to 1854. But these statistics cannot be very exact, especially when compared with the statements of Messrs. Vasconcellos and Carvalho. The almanac of 1856 gives us for 1852 to 1853 the following :—State schools 1,194 teachers; 50,642 pupils;—Community schools, or schools belonging to pious brotherhoods, and boarding schools, 1,082 teachers; 27,231 pupils;—In schools for little children in Lisbon, 584; taught at home, 13,185; making a total of 2,276 teachers and 91,642 pupils, giving about one pupil for every forty-nine inhabitants, for that year. In 1863 as many as 2,720 public and private schools were inspected. These latter statistics indicate that the government is making progress in primary school instruction. During a period of eight years from 1854 to 1862, 452 schools for boys and 136 for girls were opened; and during this period the number of pupils increased 23,280. In 1862 there were 2,845 primary schools, attended by 107,131 scholars, giving one pupil to every thirty-seven inhabitants, while the returns for 1860 showed but one pupil for every one hundred and three inhabitants.

Expenditures.—The expense of public instruction, as provided by the State, in 1854-5, was 681,290 florins, including 14,777 florins for pensions and incidentals. In 1859-60, the expense was 760,313 florins; and in 1860-61, it was 878,980 florins. In addition to these sums there are the amounts contributed by the communities, those given by separate administrations and corporations, and by private individuals for the support of private schools.

Miscellaneous. Instruction is given in the primary schools daily, except on Sundays and holidays. When there is no holiday during the week, Thursday is free. The vacations are from Christmas to Epiphany; carnival Monday, Shrove Tuesday and Ash Wednesday; the whole of Easter week till the second Monday after Easter, and fifteen to thirty days at other periods of the year, "according to circumstances."

The daily sessions are from 8 to 11 o'clock in the forenoon, and from 2 to 5 in the afternoon, from October till Easter; the rest of the year from 7 to 10 A. M., and from 3 to 6 P. M. The Study Commissioners may authorize teachers to have evening recitation for adults. When a teacher is sick he must provide a capable person to take his place, when his sickness does not exceed three days; at the same time informing the commissioner of his sickness. If the sickness of the teacher is prolonged, the commissioner must provide a substitute; and if it exceeds twenty days the Supreme Study Council appoints a professional teacher in his place.

Method of Instruction.—Mr. Minutoli says, "In most of the elementary schools that I visited, I found the teachers wanting in a well grounded power of representation, in fixed principles of education, in a clear understanding respecting the method and conduct of instruction. The work seemed to be going on without a special object and thought. I missed altogether that lively interest, that mental freshness, that curiosity, animation, that captivation of the mind which the scholar should exhibit. I have seen, of course, some excellent schools, but they were exceptions. As a general thing, the great desideratum is the right sort of teachers; and the want of them is due to the small number of teacher-seminaries."

Education is not sustained by public opinion, parents often complaining about school restraints and refusing to send their children to school. The Lancasterian system is very generally adopted in Portugal. The recitations are given in concert. There are sufficiently good text-books for the higher institutions, being partly translated from other languages, and prepared on the plan of foreign works. The old system of spelling is still followed. Castilho introduced rules on pronunciation, orthography, etc., in doggerel verses, to be sung in common melodies. Thus life was imparted to the exercises, cheerfulness was excited, and the confinement of children in school enlivened. This system was introduced into the larger cities with enthusiasm, amidst music and dancing, organizing meetings, opening evening schools for adults, giving private lessons to artisans and soldiers, etc. The lively spirit of the Portuguese was fascinated with the new method; but when the mistake was discovered they threw the work aside and ridiculed its author. The latter, however, in the meantime, on the strength of his method had been made Inspector of the system of Instruction in the kingdom of Portugal. After four years' trial, nothing remains as the result of that system, but the violent shock it gave to the old method. Not only the spelling-book, but the whole elementary system of instruction needs thorough reform, which can be brought about only by the agency of thoroughly trained teachers.

Private and Special Schools.—Among the private schools that may be named as important, is one founded at Lisbon for children of the Evangelical persuasion, under the direction of Mr. A. H. Roden; a German school, but attended also by English pupils. This school is represented by Mr. de Minutoli as exercising a good influence, inspiring an interest in the German language and popularizing good text-books. There is also a

German school in Porto. The schools of Father Joseph Hely from Ireland, Mr. Carinhan from France, Mr. Gracias from Spain, and others, deserve notice. These schools generally bear the name of some Saint, or other religious designation. Languages, for which the Portuguese have a particular aptness, are generally studied, while the mathematics and physics, and other branches of science, are neglected. The Orphan Asylum is quite a superior establishment, where the French and English languages are taught. There are workshops attached to the institution. There is also an institution for the deaf and dumb, and one for the blind, at Lisbon. The latter institution may be considered among the best of the kind in Europe.

Discipline.—Though corporal punishment, as a means of discipline, is not prohibited, teachers are enjoined to use the greatest discretion in resorting to it. The *palmatosis* (a ferule) is used in the elementary schools. But before this is applied, reprimands, changes of place in school, and other methods of reproof are employed.

The rewards consist in public commendations before the whole school, pictures, books, etc. Notwithstanding the school regulations are very severe in regard to morality, many vicious habits prevail among the boys. A record of absences from school is made out every year in September, by the teacher, and reported to the Commissioner of the district. This officer presides at the annual commencement examinations.

The principal deficiencies in regard to the elementary schools are, a want of well qualified teachers, a more active and systematic administration, and the organization of teachers' associations for the purpose of professional improvement and for the consideration of the educational interests of the people.

NOTE.

From an official report on primary instruction in Portugal in 1866, it appears there were 2,774 (1,823 public and 951 private) schools, of which 2,023 were for boys, and 751 for girls, with 99,256 pupils, viz: 77,434 in public, and 27,822 in private schools. Out of 757,534 children between the ages of 7 and 15 years, over 600,000 were not in any elementary public or private school inspected by government officials. Allowing for pupils of this age in secondary and special schools, both public and private, there will be an enormous deficit in school attendance. Out of 3,978 parishes in the kingdom, 2,155 are reported to be unprovided with any public or inspected school. Of the parishes having schools, only 942 had suitable school buildings, while 751 were returned as decidedly unfit for school purposes. Out of 2,670 teachers, 725 were women connected with teaching orders; 1,531 were returned properly qualified in moral character, and 1,624 with sufficient literary attainments; 126 conducted their schools on the monitorial method, and 954 heard each pupil individually. The whole report shows a primitive and inefficient school organization. [H. B.]

II. SECONDARY, OR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Higher instruction, while in the hands of the Jesuits and the Fathers of the Oratorio, was better attended to than the elementary and so-called public schools. The regulation of 1836 revived Pombal's ideas, and announced the freedom of secondary instruction, upon the same conditions as those applied to elementary instruction. A regular system of supervision was established. By the regulation of 1844, the system was somewhat modified and improved. The regulations for Lyceums was made in 1851; and the programme for the branches of instruction was enlarged in 1854, in order to meet the requirements for admission to the University.

The secondary or higher school instruction, embraces lyceums, colleges, private gymnasiums, and the art and trade schools of the rural districts. The Lyceums have a fixed programme of instruction, which is not the case in the other Latin schools. At some of the Lyceums there are professorships for agriculture and rural economy; and at Frenchal, Madeira, and some other places on the islands belonging to Portugal, the French and English languages are taught in the Lyceums, and in some places the programme of study embraces chemistry, natural history, mechanics, book-keeping, trigonometry, mathematical geography, and several other branches. The studies of the Greek, German and English languages, are not obligatory; but the student who possesses a knowledge of them has an advantage at the final examination of the school year.

In connection with the Lyceums, a school of Commerce has existed since 1756. It has four Chairs, viz: 1st, Commercial Arithmetic, Measures and Weights, the Elements of Algebra and Geometry; 2d, Commercial Geography, Chronology and History; 3d, Book-keeping, Exchange, Correspondence, Securities, &c.; 4th, Political Economy, and Commercial Law and Administration. Outside of the Lisbon Lyceum, but subject to the same inspection, there are Chairs of Diplomacy and Stenography. Independent of the Lyceums, power is given to the administration to establish Latin courses in one hundred and twenty of the most important places around the capital of the several districts. These courses are given in public buildings. They have each a library, and are provided with the necessary books of instruction.

There is no Normal School for the higher school instruction. In the appointment of Professors, the graduates of the University of Coimbra have the priority; and next to them those having diplomas from the Polytechnic schools of Lisbon and Porto. The candidates must be at least twenty-five years of age, must produce a good health certificate, a certificate of good morals, and civil and religious conduct, such as are also required of primary school instructors. The examination is both oral and written; first, oral, touching upon all the subjects the candidates wish to teach, and testing their acquaintance with good methods of instruction. For the written examination lots are drawn for the subjects of two com-

positions, which subjects must come within the province of the vacant Professorship. The candidates write on each of these a dialectic treatise, and if acquainted with languages, must furnish a translation. Finally, the candidates are required to go through a specimen lesson, as if they were actually standing before their pupils. At the end of the examination, the jury gives to each candidate a report on each particular branch of study; and the statement of the examination is sent to the Supreme Study Council, with remarks on the scientific and moral capacities of each candidate. The election decrees are prepared in the name of the king, and the appointments are for life. An unlawful exercise of the profession is punished by a temporary or permanent deprivation of the right to teach; and a teacher who promulgates immoral, irreligious, or peace-disturbing sentiments, is subject to punishment by the judicial tribunals.

The regulations in regard to salaries of Professors, pensions, disciplinary punishments, securities and rewards, and exemption from military service, are substantially the same as those in regard to primary teachers. The matter of inspection and supervision is also substantially the same as that of primary instruction. Principals of colleges or of the higher private schools, who refuse to submit to the inspection, may be temporarily suspended, or entirely deprived of their license.

Agricultural Schools. The administration is authorized to spend a certain amount, (1800 *milr.*.) annually, for sustaining schools for rural economy. These schools are connected with the agricultural associations of the district. Every district school has a model farm, whose returns belong to the proprietor, a private gentleman, who works it with a view to instruction, his overseer being paid by the government, and both receiving about 666½ florins yearly. The institution also serves for a veterinary school. The State supports ten foundation scholars and twenty apprentices, in every district school, the latter being generally chosen from the pupils of charitable institutions and orphan asylums. They are received at sixteen years of age, and complete their education in three years. In the agricultural institution at Lisbon, five years are required. The young do not manifest any strong desire to enter these institutions, there being only fifty pupils in that at Lisbon in 1853, in 1856 only forty-five. The veterinary school had only eleven pupils.

Art and Mechanical Institutions are founded at Lisbon and Porto, that at Lisbon being founded in 1836, and united to the Polytechnic school in 1844; and that at Porto being connected with the Polytechnic Academy there. Among the branches pursued, are, historical painting, anatomy, optics and perspective.

The Institute for Art and Trade at Lisbon, had in 1860, 451 scholars, and that at Porto, 103.

Statistics. The Lyceums have on an average three professorships. Those at Lisbon, Porto and Coimbra, however, have respectively 28, 16 and 16 professors and supplementary teachers. In 1854, there were 210 professorships for higher instruction, in the whole kingdom. Of these, 122 were

connected with the Lyceums. This gave scarcely one professorship to 4,500 homes, or 18,000 inhabitants. The whole number of scholars was 3,338, or one to every 1,150 inhabitants.

Since the accession of Don Pedro V, to the throne, there has been considerable progress. In 1860, there were 280 professorships for higher instruction, 160 of them connected with the Lyceums.

The scholastic year begins October 1, and ends July 31. The month of August is reserved for examinations. The vacations are the same as for the Elementary Schools, except that the national holidays and mourning days, are not regarded. Pupils absent from school twenty times during the year, without excuse, or sixty times for any cause, lose a school year, not being allowed to present themselves for examination. If one loses the last six lessons, his standing in the class is thereby affected.

These secondary institutions have their programmes of study divided into Courses, and not into Scholastic years. In the Lyceums, the number of school years is not regularly determined. The pupils do not, in fact, remain long in them; they enter only for the one or the other Course. They do not go through all the Courses at the same time. The Lyceum diploma is valuable only in enabling its professors to secure certain situations in public office. But to fill such an office, an aspirant must be twenty-five years of age.

Instruction. While the plan of study in the Lyceums appears to allow great liberty, the character of the method is really of a most pedantic stiffness. Many good text-books have been prepared recently for the Lyceums; and some acquaintance has been made with the best and newest school-books of Germany. The manner of instruction, however, is very defective. Governmental instruction is still confined within the limits of old formalism, and very little Latin is read, especially of the prose writers.

But notwithstanding all the imperfections and deficiencies of the system, the higher school instruction of Portugal, in respect to organization and administration, has made much greater progress than that of the elementary public schools.

The late king did much to inspire a taste for art and science, but the higher classes are generally indifferent to it. Minutoli says, that, "whilst in Germany every boy, with few exceptions, busies himself besides his studies, with either reading or music, drawing, painting, botany or forming collections of butterflies, beetles, minerals, shells, and impressions of seals and escutheons, the young Portuguese knows nothing of all these, and interests himself at most in politics, which are generally as little suited to his immature mental development, as is his early physical development, fostered by ready opportunities, to excess in general." Recent events prove that politics still engage the young to a large extent.

The relaxing effect of the climate on the one hand, and the ardor of revolutionary feeling on the other, are suggested as contributing to produce this indifference to educational progress.

NUMBER OF PROFESSORS AND PUPILS IN LYCEUMS.

PROVINCES.	DISTRICTS.	Number of Profes'ships.		Total.		Number of Pupils.	
		Lyceums	Outside Lyceum Courses.	District.	Province	District.	Province
Alemtejo,	Beja,	3	2	5	25	19	150
	Evora,	9	4	13		131	
	Portalegre,	4	3	7		—	
Algaroe,	Faro,	5	3	8	8	113	113
Beira,	Aveiro,	3	4	7	48	251	1,336
	Castello branco,	3	6	9		246	
	Coimbra,	10	4	14		323	
	Guarda,	3	5	8		63	
	Vizeu,	3	7	10		453	
Estramadura,	Lisbon	25	Secr. central 11,	7	50	54	531
			" oriental 7,	34		429	
			" occid 5,	9		—	
			" comm. 2.	—		—	
	Santarem,	3	6	9		48	
Minho,	Braga,	9	2	11	31	463	689
	Porto,	8	5	13		54	
	Vianna,	6	1	7		172	
Tras os Montes,	Braganca,	3	5	8	20	23	41
	Villareal,	4	8	12		18	
Adjacent Isles,	Angra,	4	3	7	28	187	478
	Funchal,	6	—	6		56	
	Horta,	3	4	7		116	
	Ponta Delgada,	5	3	8		119	
Total,		122	88	210	210	3,338	3,338

III. SUPERIOR AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

The highest scientific instruction is obtained at the University of Coimbra, which has five faculties, viz: Theology, Jurisprudence, Medicine, Pure and Practical Mathematics, and Philosophy.

Since the University has lost its clerical supervision, the students stand in closer relation to the professors; and it is charged that in order to promote their own popularity, they show to the young students too much lenity and condescension to secure the best results of study. Coimbra has never had a complete and harmoniously arranged course of lectures on the humanities, philosophy, and ancient and modern literature. Until 1859, the elements of logic, moral science and metaphysics, were the principal branches upon the programmes of the Lyceums. There were some exceptions to this, among those that were brought under the influence of persons who had traveled abroad. The Department of Belles-letters is following in the track of progress, especially in respect to the study of languages, ancient as well as modern.

The late king, in 1859, in order to excite a greater interest in education, opened in Lisbon, at his own expense, a sort of *faculté des lettres*, which is destined to react upon the Lyceums, being a sort of higher College, having five professorships, which hold the same rank as those of the University.

Among the Special Schools, which are of some importance, is the Polytechnic School of Lisbon, which, like the school of the same name, in Paris, prepares its students for a similar career in civil or military life. This was founded in 1779, under the name of Royal Naval Academy, and was reorganized in 1851, and in 1860 attached to the Ministry of the Interior, because it educated civil engineers as well as officers for the army. Students are admitted at the age of fourteen, after a rigid examination in French, logic, drawing, arithmetic, the elements of algebra, geometry, trigonometry and mathematical geography, and natural history, besides the branches of an elementary education. The Course in the institution requires three or four years. The school is under the superintendence of a naval officer, and is well provided with professors in the various branches pursued. There is a library and museum of natural history connected with the school.

There is also a Polytechnic Academy at Porto, which serves as a naval school and for a commercial and higher art and trade school.

These two special institutions, by the law of 1844, have equal rights with the University and the Schools of Medicine, etc.

Engineers for mining are not educated in Portugal, but are obliged to go abroad for instruction, and the government supports at least three such students. The diploma of engineer of roads and bridges, from the Polytechnic School at Paris, is deemed sufficient for entering the public service.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SAXONY.

HISTORY—TERRITORY—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT.

THE SAXONS belonged to the great northern German races, whose inroads into the Roman territories rendered the names of Cimbrians and Teutones so formidable. In the third century of the Christian era, their devastations on the British and Belgian coast gave rise to the appointment of a particular officer (*comes littoris Saxonici*) to take charge of its defense. In the middle of the fifth century, Hengist and Horsa, with detachments of armed colonists, laid the foundations of the Saxon kingdoms in Britain. Against those who remained behind, Charlemagne carried on a thirty years' war, and at length subdued them to his rule, and to Christianity. In 845, mention is made of a duke of Saxony, and in the new kingdom of Germany the Saxons were the most powerful of the six nations of which the kingdom was composed, (Eastern Franks, Saxons, Frisians, Thuringians, Suabians, and Bavarians.) In 919, duke Henry was elected German king, and was succeeded by his son, grandson, and great-grandson. In 1185, the duchy passed to the Bavarian branch of the Guelf family, and in 1424, Frederic, (of the house of Wettin) Margrave of Meissen and Landgrave of Thuringia, became Elector of Saxony, his predecessor having founded the University of Leipsic in 1409. In 1485, Ernest and Albert, sons of Frederic the Warrior, divided the family dignities and possessions between them, and founded the Ernestine and the Albertine Saxon lines, the former retaining the electorate and Thuringia, and the latter Meissen, or Misnia, and now constitutes the royal house of Saxony. Ernest was succeeded in the electorate by his sons Frederic (1486-1525) and John (1525-1532.) The former is celebrated as the protector of Luther, the promoter of the Reformation, and founder of the University of Wittenberg in 1502. In 1547 the ducal and electoral dignity was transferred to the Albertine line in the person of Maurice. In the Thirty Years' War, John George joined Gustavus Adolphus, but afterwards sided with the Emperor, and by the treaty of Prague (1635) obtained the two Lusatias; and in 1697, Frederic Augustus I obtained the crown of Poland. In the wars which grew out of the French revolution, Saxony took sides against France, but after the battle of Jena, the Elector acceded to the Confederation of the Rhine, and received the royal title in 1806. But this arrangement, while it effected a temporary enlargement of territory, in the reverses of Napoleon's arms which followed, determined a partition of the kingdom of Saxony in the Congress.

of Vienna in 1815, when 8,160 square miles, with a population of 875,578, including the Circle of Wittenberg, parts of Meissen, and Leipsic, and Merseberg, and the whole of lower Lusatia, was ceded to Prussia; leaving an area of 6,773 square miles, and a population of 1,200,000, which had increased in 1861 to 2,225,240, of which 2,175,872 were Lutherans, 41,863 Catholics, 4,515 Calvinists, 1,555 Jews, and 2,355 of other confessions.

According to the Constitution, conceded Sept. 4th, 1831, the crown is hereditary in the male line; but on the extinction of the latter, also in the female line. The sovereign comes of age at the completed eighteenth year, and, during his minority, the nearest heir to the throne takes the regency. In the hands of the king is the sole executive power, which he exercises through responsible ministers. The legislature is jointly in the king and parliament, the latter consisting of two Chambers. The Upper Chamber comprises the princes of the blood royal; the proprietors of eight baronial domains; twelve deputies elected by the owners of other nobiliar estates; ten noble proprietors nominated by the king for life; the burgo-masters of eight towns; and the superintendents and deputies of five collegiate institutions, of the University of Leipzig, and of the Catholic chapter of St. Peter at Bautzen. The Lower Chamber is made up of twenty deputies of landed proprietors; twenty-five of towns and city corporations; twenty-five of peasants and communes; and five representatives of commerce and manufacturing industry. The qualification for a seat in the Upper House, as well as the right of election to the same, is the possession of a landed estate, worth at least 1,000 thalers a year; which qualification, however, is not required by the *ex officio* deputies of chapters and universities. To be a member of the Lower House, no fixed income is required; and the electors are all men above twenty-five years of age, who pay taxes or contribute in any way to the public burdens. A salary is attached to the performance of the legislative functions; the members of the Upper House being allowed seven thalers, or about a guinea (\$5,25) a day, during the sittings of Parliament, and the deputies to the second Chamber three thalers, or 9s., (\$2,25.) Both Houses have the right to make propositions for new laws, the bills for which, however, must come from the ministry. No taxes can be made, levied, or altered, without the sanction of both Chambers.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION.

Before the reformatory movements of Luther, scientific and literary life in the countries of Saxony had been so developed that they were well prepared to bring forth and mature the seeds of educational improvement. The spirit of the house of Wettin is shown by the fact, that the Christian Church was established within the countries subject to its sceptre. As in Brandenburg, so also in the Margraviate of Meissen, Christianity and German institutions prevailed. As the founder of this distinguished House, Henry the Illustrious, amidst numerous feuds and wars, entanglements and confusion, found time to gain an honorable place among

German minstrels, so a taste for education and culture was shown by his descendants. The numerous convents, for the endowment and support of which the princes give a great portion of the "mountain blessing"* God bestowed on them, above all the glorious Altenzelle, became nurseries of monastic learning and research, and their collections of books furnished the germs of many valuable libraries still existing. Schools often grew out of the ecclesiastical foundations. It can not be doubted, that the erection of the cathedral school (*schola cathedralis* or *canonica*) was commenced with the foundation of the bishopric of Meissen in the year 967; for the ordinances of Charlemagne in regard to education, especially of ecclesiastics, were still in force. It is certain the course of instruction included the learning of psalms, vocal music, arithmetic and grammar, Latin and Greek; these lessons were given to pupils of both the higher and lower ranks. There is no evidence that the first bishops, who themselves had to teach, were not fully up to their tasks, or neglected them; yet it may be supposed that the exercise and drill for the service of the church—perhaps obligatory at first—was the main pursuit. At least it seems that the standard of education was lowered when the control of the school passed from the bishop to the "scholasticus," who soon gave over part of his labors to the "cantor." At an early period, the position of canon at a cathedral (*scholasticus*) came to be regarded as a snug berth for persons of noble family, who, in capacity and character, were unfit for the spiritual duties of their office. It was, therefore, a wise precaution on the part of the bishops, about the middle of the 13th century, that, while hitherto the canons had appointed those by whom their duties were to be fulfilled, they nominated, as permanent vicar, a rector or a *succentor*, by which the office of *scholasticus* became one of supervision only. But this arrangement produced no favorable result; on the contrary, when the Augustines opened their school at St. Afra, in Meissen, the number of applicants to the cathedral school who were inclined to perfect their education, became so small that the bishop and the cathedral chapter procured a bull from pope Nicolaus III, (Nov. 21, 1275,) which forbade the abbot and canons of St. Afra admitting any cathedral scholars without consent of their rector. Many of the considerable endowments in favor of the cathedral students were, in accordance with the character of that period, simply compensations to balance mental inferiority and the want of true Christian character. The progressive scientific spirit, which had come to life, could not be kept from the cathedral schools, as shown by the appointment of such a rector as John Pollichius, of whose capability his friend Herman von dem Busche, the patron of classic literature, gives a favorable account, as well as by the prohibition of the bishop John of Saalhausen, in 1504, not to teach any subject beside the *quadrivium*, least of all the interpretation of the Holy Scriptures, in public or private. The convent-school of the cathedral at St. Afra, in Meissen, has been mentioned as superior to the cathedral

* Mountain-blessing—Bergsgeseg—the silver ore of the Hartz mountains.

school. The foundation of this cathedral proceeded from the spiritual zeal of Dederic II, of K ttlitz, (1190–1207,) who saw, with displeasure, how the canons carelessly performed their duties in connection with the Afra church and that of “our Lady,” and had thereby destroyed all religious influence of the bishop in his own diocese. His great mind found the proper remedy by building near St. Afra, with the liberal support of Margrave Dederic (1205,) the richly endowed cathedral, and admitting into it the regular canons of St. Augustine, who, though not friars, were held in high esteem for their faithful service to the church and zeal for the people. In its foundation he provided only for a lower school (*schola exterior, puerorum, secularium ‘parvulorum,’*) the twelve pupils being employed in singing and other church services, and in addition to the necessary exercise and instruction for these duties, learning by heart the essential doctrines of the Church. Yet the intent of the founder in regard to a higher school may be inferred from what the second abbot (1223–1243) of the convent accomplished, namely, the erection of a superior school for ecclesiastics, a nursery for future canons of St. Augustine (*schola interior, claustrum, scholarium puerorum.*) Its twenty-four pupils received board and lodging in the convent and accustomed themselves to its rules of living. A rector and a cantor instructed them not only in subjects necessary for public worship, music and recitations, but also in calligraphy, ancient languages, theology, and philosophy. This school, shortly after being opened, must have attained a high degree of success and attracted young persons of talent, since the cathedral chapter, as mentioned before, had procured some repressive measures to be inserted in the charter by which pope Nicolas III approved the institution established in St. Afra. Though but few of its rectors are known even by name, and none were specially eminent, it would not be just to conclude that the school had lost in reputation or success, since other events, in particular the foundation of a large library, prove that the canons of St. Afra were not ignorant of the aims of the 15th century. The great authority of the canons of St. Augustine is shown by their erection of a cathedral at St. Thomas, in Leipzig, (1213,) after the model of St. Afra. A higher school was not at first connected with it; but there was the lower school for the training of ministrant boys, as proved by the provision in the foundation, according to which Saturday’s mass was to be sung by eight pupils, and certain holydays observed “under ringing of bells and singing with accompaniment of the organ.” We see here the origin of the present celebrated singing-school at St. Thomas. There was an early demand for better instruction in that rich and commercial city, as is evident from the fact that the city council, in 1395, obtained from pope Boniface IX the privileges of establishing a school, and of engaging teachers for grammar and the free arts, independent of the abbot of St. Thomas. Thus at that early date was founded the present and successful gymnasium of St. Nicolas. A considerable number of young men from the Meissen country, in their thirst for knowledge, may have

resorted to foreign universities, but there was this gain, among the many unfortunate consequences of the division of Germany, that each ruler and state, in happy rivalry, established at home the beneficent institutions of other countries. Margrave Frederic the Warlike and his brother William, notwithstanding the political troubles of that period, ordered the erection of a university in their dominion, and every where manifested a liberal interest for science and the elevation of their subjects. They seized the opportunity of the disturbances at Prague by receiving the refugees in Leipzig, and founded there a university on December 2d, 1409. Historians say that this university attained eminence only after a century, and through the influence of the Reformation, and ascribe this to the opposition to free research in theology, brought over from Prague; but the defective education of students, previous to entering the university, undoubtedly had a great share in retarding its prosperity.

The convent-school at Altenzelle should next be mentioned. In it great attention was given to securing able teachers, such as (in 1397) Christian Gruner, Bachelor of Theology and Master of Arts, who had great influence in inducing the seceders from Prague to resort to Leipzig, and in the erection of the university itself. Whether that monastic scholastical spirit which characterized the teachers of Leipzig, ruled here also, we can not say; but we must recall the name of Abbot Martin Lochau, who competed with duke George the Bearded in the promotion of science. In naming other schools, like those in Dresden, Chemnitz, Annaberg, Freiberg, we can not suppress a doubt, whether they had a permanent position, or were only temporarily kept by a succession of itinerant teachers, who engaged assistants, and gave courses of instruction, for which they were paid from the public funds or by the fees of their scholars. The annoyance of traveling students* continued, in Saxony, almost to the end of the 17th century, and did not begin much later than in other parts of Germany. Some men, eminent in science and intellect, are named among these itinerating school-keepers, such as Peter von Dresden, the defender of the doctrine of the sacrament in both forms, known as the author of the Leonine church-hymns, and who is reported to have taught in Dresden, Chemnitz and Zwickau, before he was forced, by the bishop of Meissen, to take refuge in Bohemia.

The desolation in consequence of the Hussite war, no doubt prostrated schools for a time, but, like all temporary hindrances, could only increase their ultimate vigor and life.

If the University of Leipzig did not early share the reformatory spirit, it was not through the fault of the princes, who exerted themselves for its prosperity. In 1438 it obtained a fourth faculty, that of medicine, by the establishment of two professorships. The anxious labors of the princes to save it from Papal interference and maintain its independent jurisdiction, originated in political considerations, but contributed largely to its spiritual and scientific activity. The faithful patronage of Ernest

* For this feature of German School Life in the 15th century, see Barnard's Journal, vol. v. p. 79.

and Albrecht, in their common desire to elevate the university, deserves great praise; but especially prominent was the latter. When, in the division of the inheritance, Leipzig fell to him, though he was at that time engaged at a great distance from his country, he inquired minutely into the condition of the institution, and received from his son George, whom he had intrusted with the government, full accounts of the teachers engaged, and the existing needs and defects. He understood the demands of the age and the wants of his country, and insisted on having mathematics taught, which, on account of mining, were highly esteemed in Meissen; also astronomy, and practical studies in general. How could the humanistic studies, which awoke in Italy, be kept out? They had been seized on with great zeal in other parts of Germany, with a more profound significance than in Italy, for while Italian scholars aimed to acquire a classic Latin style, in Germany, from the beginning, they cultivated those studies as the basis of higher intellectual culture, and the field from which must spring every reform in church and religion. Italy had gained this advantage, that studious Germans went there to study art and science in its schools; and several of those were the Meissen scholars.

The Leipzig jurist John de Breitenbach had won, through his students at Perugia, the reputation of a truly learned man. Albrecht the Warlike sent his son Frederic to Sièna. The older son, George, was a friend of classical learning, and it is the more remarkable, as he proved an obstinate opponent and sometimes a tyrannical persecutor of the Reformation. A just opinion has decided that he became an enemy to Evangelic truth in no other sense than many of the prominent humanists, like Erasmus, declared themselves against Luther. The suppression of the professorships of the Greek and Hebrew languages in Leipzig resulted from his sympathy with Church-reaction, for before that movement he called from Heidelberg to Leipzig, the great representative of classical science, Conrad Celtes, and protected John Rhay against the persecutions of the monastic spirit. He also regretted the departure from Leipzig of Herman Busch, who afterwards became a warm friend of Ulrich von Hutten, and gained great merit by his efforts for the promotion of humanistic studies in Saxony. Afterwards, Duke George called Richard Crocus, an Englishman, and Peter Mosellanus, (1524,) to the University of Leipzig.

The art of printing was early introduced into Leipzig, and the number of presses soon increased, so that those desirous of knowledge found easier means to satisfy their wishes than by copying and committing to memory.

Great credit is due to Paul Schneevogel (Niavis,) for leading youth to the old classic authors of Rome, instead of giving them the works of the middle or latest period of Roman literature, and also for introducing a more tasteful and thorough interpretation. He taught about 1486 in Chemnitz; but had also been teacher of the Latin and Greek at the University of Leipzig.

In Dresden the school earliest mentioned (1452) is that of the Holy Cross (now Gymnasium.) Similar schools, perhaps only occasionally open, when a renowned teacher stayed for a time, existed in Leipzig, Freiberg and Annaberg, the more important of these was that at Zwickau. The wealth accumulated there from the mines of the Arch-mountains, was not squandered in vain luxury, but the inhabitants recognized in the gifts of God an invitation to labor for His glory and the benefit of their fellow-men. Martin Römer, whose wealth was fabulous, devoted more than 100,000 florins towards ecclesiastical and charitable institutions, and built the school near the church of our Lady. In this school was Stephen Rothe, as teacher of Latin, and George Agricola, as teacher of the Greek language. A lively zeal for the promotion of scientific studies was shown by the last will of M. Gregor Schurzauf, (1484,) in which he bequeathed 100 florins annually for five talented students, over twenty years old, first from among his relatives, and if none applied, from the sons of citizens of Zwickau, with a provision that if one of them would visit an Italian university, he should have *two* of the stipends. A beneficiary of one, and later of two stipends of 100 florins, was the celebrated jurist Haloander, the first founder of comments on Justinian law, who, after commencing his studies in Leipzig (1521-3,) went to Italy, where he died (in Venice) in 1531.

The above will sufficiently show that the Reformation did not find the soil of Saxony entirely unprepared or unfruitful.

The division of the house of Wettin into the Ernestine and the Albertine line, though diminishing the power of the family, had a beneficial effect in inciting a rival zeal between the princes. The disappointment of the elector, Frederic the Wise, at losing the University of Leipzig, contributed not a little to his founding the University of Wittenberg in 1502. A new spirit became manifest in the first organization, in which the principle of dividing the students by nationalities was abolished and the division by faculties was instituted. The judicious selection of professors, by which Martin Luther was introduced into the faculty, called into life the long desired and often vainly attempted reformation of the Church.

As the Reformation, in accordance with its principles, embraced the education of the whole people as well as of a learned class, the two great reformers, Luther and Melancthon, went zealously to work, the former by his rousing appeals to parents and rulers, and the latter especially by his improved text-books and teaching, to awaken a general interest in the establishment and improvement of schools. Through the influence of Luther, John the Constant appointed Melancthon, in 1527, to make a visitation of schools, which was attended with the most important consequences to the school system. The field assigned him was Thuringia, and, in company with Myconius and Justus Jonas, he traversed the whole of it; and in 1528, by the order of the Elector, published his "Report," or "Book of Visitation," a work of great significance alike to

church and schools. Through its means an Evangelical church-system was established, for the first time independent of the Pope, and asserting its own authority both in matters of doctrine and government. From the "Book of Visitation" we extract the following school-plan :

SCHOOL-PLAN OF 1528.

Preachers also should exhort the people of their charge to send their children to school, so that they may be trained up to teach sound doctrine in the church, and to serve the state in a wise and able manner. Some imagine that it is enough for a teacher to understand German. But this is a misguided fancy. For he, who is to teach others, must have great practice and special aptitude ; to gain this, he must have studied much, and from his youth up. For St. Paul tells us, in 1 Tim., 3 : 2, that a bishop must be "apt to teach." And herein he would have us infer that bishops must possess this quality in greater measure than laymen. So also he commends Timothy, (1 Tim., 4 : 6,) in that he has learned from his youth up, having been "nourished up in the words of faith, and of good doctrine." For this is no small art, namely, to teach and direct others in a clear and correct manner, and it is impossible that unlearned men should attain to it. Nor do we need able and skillful persons for the church alone, but for the government of the world too ; and God requires it at our hands. Hence parents should place their children at school, in order there to arm and equip them for God's service, so that God can use them for the good of others.

But in our day there are many abuses in children's schools. And it is that these abuses may be corrected, and that the young may have good instruction, that we have prepared this plan. In the first place, the teachers must be careful to teach the children Latin only, not German, nor Greek, nor Hebrew, as some have heretofore done, burdening the poor children with such a multiplicity of pursuits, that are not only unproductive, but positively injurious. Such schoolmasters, we plainly see, do not think of the improvement of the children at all, but undertake so many languages solely to increase their own reputation. In the second place, teachers should not burden the children with too many books, but should rather avoid a needless variety. Thirdly, it is indispensable that the children be classified into distinct groups.

THE FIRST GROUP.—The first group should consist of those children who are learning to read. With these the following method is to be adopted : They are first to be taught the child's-manual, containing the alphabet, the creed, the Lord's prayer, and other prayers. When they have learned this, Donatus and Cato may both be given them ; Donatus for a reading-book, and Cato they may explain after the following manner : the schoolmaster must give them the explanation of a verse or two, and then in a few hours call upon them to repeat what he has thus said ; and in this way they will learn a great number of Latin words, and lay up a full store of phrases to use in speech. In this they should be exercised until they can read well. Neither do we consider it time lost, if the feebler children, who are not especially quick-witted, should read Cato and Donatus not once only, but a second time. With this they should be taught to write, and be required to show their writing to the schoolmaster every day. Another mode of enlarging their knowledge of Latin words is to give them every afternoon some words to commit to memory, as has been the custom in schools hitherto. These children must likewise be kept at music, and be made to sing with the others, as we shall show, God willing, further on.

THE SECOND GROUP.—The second group consists of children who have learned to read, and are now ready to go into grammar. With these the following regulations should be observed : The first hour after noon every day all the children, large and small, should be practiced in music. Then the schoolmaster must interpret to the second group the fables of Æsop. After vespers, he should explain to them the Paedology of Mosellanus ; and, when this is finished, he should select from the Colloquies of Erasmus some that may conduce to their improvement and discipline. This should be repeated on the following evening.

When the children are about to go home for the night, some short sentence may be given them, taken perhaps from a poet, which they are to repeat the next morning, such as "*Amicus certus in re incerta cernitur*"—A true friend becomes manifest in adversity. Or "*Fortuna, quem nimium foret, stultum facit*"—Fortune, if she fondles a man too much, makes him a fool. Or this from Ovid: "*Vulgus amicitias utilitate probat*"—The rabble value friendships by the profit they yield.

In the morning the children are again to explain Æsop's fables. With this the teacher should decline some nouns or verbs, many or few, easy or difficult, according to the progress of the children, and then ask them the rules and the reasons for such inflection. And at the same time when they shall have learned the rules of construction, they should be required to *construe*, (parse,) as it is called; this is a very useful exercise, and yet there are not many who employ it. After the children have thus learned Æsop, Terence is to be given to them; and this they must commit to memory, for they will now be older, and able to work harder. Still the master must be cautious, lest he overtask them. Next after Terence, the children may take hold of such of the comedies of Plautus as are harmless in their tendency, as the *Aulularia*, the *Trinummus*, the *Pseudolus*, etc.

The hour before mid-day must be invariably and exclusively devoted to instruction in grammar: first etymology, then syntax, and lastly prosody. And when the teacher has gone thus far through with the grammar, he should begin it again, and so on continually, that the children may understand it to perfection. For if there is negligence here, there is neither certainty nor stability in whatever is learned beside. And the children should learn by heart and repeat all the rules, so that they may be driven and forced, as it were, to learn the grammar well.

If such labor is irksome to the schoolmaster, as we often see, then we should dismiss him, and get another in his place,—one who will not shrink from the duty of keeping his pupils constantly in the grammar. For no greater injury can befall learning and the arts, than for youth to grow up in ignorance of grammar.

This course should be repeated daily, by the week together; nor should we by any means give children a different book to study each day. However, one day, for instance, Sunday or Wednesday, should be set apart, in which the children may receive Christian instruction. For some are suffered to learn nothing in the Holy Scriptures; and some masters there are who teach children nothing but the Scriptures; both of which extremes must be avoided. For it is essential that children be taught the rudiments of the Christian and divine life. So likewise there are many reasons why, with the Scriptures, other books, too, should be laid before them, out of which they may learn to read. And in this matter we propose the following method: Let the schoolmaster hear the whole group, making them, one after the other, repeat the Lord's prayer, the creed, and the ten commandments. But if the group is too large, it may be divided, so that one week one part may recite, and the remaining part the next.

After one recitation, the master should explain, in a simple and correct manner, the Lord's prayer, after the next the creed, and at another time the ten commandments. And he should impress upon the children the essentials, such as the fear of God, faith, and good works. He must not touch upon polemics, nor must he accustom the children to scoff at monks or any other persons, as many unskillful teachers use to do.

With this the schoolmaster may give the boys some plain psalms to commit to memory, which comprehend the sum and substance of the Christian life, which inculcate the fear of the Lord, faith, and good works. As the 112th Psalm, "Blessed is the man that feareth the Lord;" the 34th, "I will bless the Lord at all times;" the 128th, "Blessed is every one that feareth the Lord, that walketh in his ways;" the 125th, "They that trust in the Lord shall be as Mount Zion, which can not be removed, but abideth forever;" the 127th, "Except the Lord build the house, they labor in vain that build it;" the 133d, "Behold how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity!" or other such plain and intelligible psalms, which likewise should be

expounded in the briefest and most correct manner possible, so that the children may know, both the substance of what they have learned and where to find it.

On this day, too, the teacher should give a grammatical exposition of Matthew; and when he has gone through with it, he should commence it anew. But when the boys are somewhat more advanced, he may comment upon the two epistles of Paul to Timothy, or the 1st Epistle of John, or the Proverbs of Solomon. But teachers must not undertake any other books. For it is not profitable to burden the young with deep and difficult books, as some do, who, to add to their own reputation, read Isaiah, Paul's Epistle to the Romans, St. John's Gospel, and others of a like nature.

THE THIRD GROUP.—Now, when these children have been well trained in grammar, those among them who have made the greatest proficiency should be taken out, and formed into the third group. The hour after mid-day, they, together with the rest, are to devote to music. After this the teacher is to give an explanation of Virgil. When he has finished this, he may take up Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, and in the latter part of the afternoon, Cicero's "Offices," or "Letters to Friends." In the morning, Virgil may be reviewed, and the teacher, to keep up practice in the grammar, may call for constructions and inflections, and point out the prominent figures of speech.

The hour before mid-day, grammar should still be kept up, that the scholars may be thoroughly versed therein. And when they are perfectly familiar with etymology and syntax, then prosody (*metrica*) should be opened to them, so that they can thereby become accustomed to make verses. For this exercise is a very great help toward understanding the writings of others; and it likewise gives the boys a rich fund of words, and renders them accomplished many ways. In course of time, after they have been sufficiently practiced in the grammar, this same hour is to be given to logic and rhetoric. The boys in the second and third groups are to be required every week to write compositions, either in the form of letters or of verses. They should also be rigidly confined to Latin conversation, and to this end the teachers themselves must, as far as possible, speak nothing but Latin with the boys; thus they will acquire the practice by use, and the more rapidly for the incentives held out to them.

The effects of the reforms of 1528 were of advantage to the electorate, and, in spite of the opposition of the regent, penetrated into the countries of duke George. The writings of Luther and Melancthon, and the translation of the Bible, were read every where; convents were deserted, while the funds and revenues of the Church increased. The duke maintained his opposition to the new movement until he died, but it advanced under his brother, Henry the Pious, in 1535, who fostered the more liberal religious tendencies, and with his small estate of Freiberg, openly gave in his adhesion to the Reformation, securing himself against George's enmity by joining the Schmalkaldic League in 1537. The elector John Frederic gave a cheerful support to his efforts, and arranged, with the advice of Luther, a church-visitation in conjunction with the commissioners appointed by Henry for the like object. George died, April 17, 1539, and though he had made efforts to prevent it, Henry assumed the government of all of the Albertine inheritance, and took measures to carry out the principles of reform. He began with the university, and great opposition was expected, but Luther's sermon, on Pentecost, 1539, secured the good will of the citizens. The voice of the country spoke loud in favor of church-reform, and the powers whose aid might have been invoked against it, had little inclination to interfere by force, so that all resistance was hushed. The elector John Frederic was again ready to

assist. On the 10th of June, 1539, he issued instructions for a new visitation, by which church and school in the Meissen countries should be reformed, able teachers engaged, and a sure revenue be provided. The convent of St. Afra submitted, but the cathedral, on the ground of its direct charter from the empire, attempted resistance, and was secularized. The two schools at Meissen, before mentioned, were closed, and a city-school took their place. Henry the Pious left the completion of his work, at his death, (Aug. 18, 1541,) to his son Maurice (1541–1553,) having abolished the division of the estate among the sons. To that eminent Saxon prince the Protestant Church owes its existence, and in the sphere of education he created schools and educational accessories which proved a lasting benefit to his own country, and became models for all Germany. He is justly called the second founder of the University of Leipzig; for he increased its revenues, enlarged the library from the convent libraries; amended the statutes, and exercised a jealous care in the selection of able professors. He induced Joachim Camerarius, who had been recommended to him by Melancthon, to labor at the University of Leipzig, who was soon followed by Alesius, (from Scotland,) Bernard Ziegler, and Pfeffinger. The importance ascribed to the study of History by Melancthon and Camerarius was well understood and appreciated by Maurice.

Chemnitz also was fortunate; the last abbot of the convent, Hilarius, bequeathed a considerable sum for the maintenance of the city-school. In most cases poor students obtained means of support by a custom which afterwards brought injury to their progress in science and to their morals, namely, the singing-processions in the streets on certain days, as Christmas and New Year's day, which often were extended to the neighboring towns. Even in Leipzig this custom prevailed, and a special funeral-fee for the benefit of schools had been established. The sum of 1,441 florins, a very large one at that time, was given by the citizens for a new building, to be added to the St. Thomas school; to which the magistrates of the city gave in addition 876 florins.

The labors of a teacher were very fatiguing; he had generally to impart all instruction in one class-room; and, in order to increase his income and to assist weaker scholars, was obliged to give private lessons. At first, most city councils, in the improvement of their schools, limited themselves to the introduction of the small catechism of Luther and German hymns; and later carried out the plan of instruction drawn up by Luther and Melancthon. As this included three classes only, the small number of teachers is explained.

In Chemnitz, which had more means through the bequest of Hilarius, Adam Siber introduced (1547) a new plan of studies, which admitted a thorough course in Greek, as well as dialectics and rhetoric, and transferred the advantages of the so-called "royal schools" to the city school. He established five classes, with five teachers; so that beside the rector, there was a "Supremus," (afterwards Conrector,) a Baccalaureus (medius

or later Tertius,) the cantor, and the Infimus. It will always be thought an essential innovation, that in 1549 he recommended, together with Isocrates, "*Luciani dialogos aliquos minus scurriles.*" The reading of Lucian, with the restrictions given by Siber, has been adopted successfully in gymnasiums by many pedagogues, notwithstanding much opposition.

That the method of instruction at that period was practical, is shown by Adam Riese's arithmetic, published 1550, which still has a great reputation. Special or burgher-schools were not thought of at that time, as the separation of classes was not very distinct, and Luther recommended the Latin school. Instruction of girls even had not yet begun. Only one school existed in Leipzig, in which a lady teacher gave lessons in singing, reading, writing, and sewing; arithmetic being excluded. A similar school in Freiberg could not be established.

After the death of the elector Maurice, in 1558, the government descended to his brother August (1553-1586.) He increased the funds of the University of Leipzig, and issued the "order of schools in the electorate of Saxony" of Jan. 1st, 1580,* which formed the basis for the development of systems of instruction, and has left its essential features on all modern legislation. It is distinguished from the latter by its regulation of minute details in the methods and discipline of schools and the duties of teachers, leaving to them but little discretion; yet we can not read them without recognizing the conscientious effort to make the possession of the few the property of the many.

The introduction does not define general education, but demonstrates clearly enough that society can not exist without science, and the latter can not prove beneficent without schools and instruction. Having from this inferred the duty of government to provide with earnest efforts for the established schools, it declares necessary a fixed plan of instruction, that the scholars may not become perplexed by methods of different teachers. Uniformity of books was demanded, that boys might not be overloaded with books, and that parents might not be obliged to spend money for them unnecessarily, and that the teachers, in their annual examinations, could thereby give a better account of their labor. A tender care for the education of the whole people is expressed in the provision, that children of poor parents, who show a genius for learning, should find all possible assistance to enable them to continue their studies, and should be recommended to the inspectors of higher schools for stipends and free-scholarships.

The law then provides for schools of different grades: *First*, Particular schools, (*Particularschulen*), with five classes, numbered from the lowest, *prima* to *quinta*, so that even smaller schools, of fewer classes, could

* *Note*.—It has been remarked (Kämmel, p. 538,) that the School Order of the Electorate of Saxony of 1580, was based upon that of Wurtemberg of 1559, but A. Siber made a report in 1579, the fundamental principles of which correspond to the School Order made by him for Chemnitz in 1547.

follow the plan of instruction and become preparatory schools. The classes were subdivided into *Decuria*, according to the progress of the scholars, in order that the more talented might not be kept back by the less able pupils. For every *Decuria* a new Decuriat or section-master was elected every week, whose duty was to read aloud the general lesson which the teacher (preceptor) had given, before his fellow-scholars, and watch over their good behavior. In order that in large classes every pupil should be examined once a week, one or more poor scholars were appointed to hear them; but the preceptor alternately heard each section himself, that he might measure the progress of each scholar. The schools were suspended on Sundays and holydays; on the days of town-fair, on Wednesday afternoons in the Summer, and on the afternoons of Saturday and holyday-eve, when teachers and pupils were obliged to go to singing and church. The hours of school were six per day; in the forenoon from 6 to 9, in the afternoon from 12 to 3.

The programme of instruction is substantially as follows:

In class I, the scholars who are learning to read shall devote the entire day to it, "until they are able to read and write well." The first book used was the smaller Catechism of Luther, which, by prefixing a printed alphabet, became the A B C book of young pupils. Syllabing began with the *paternoster*. A pure pronunciation, after the sound of Latin vowels, (to do away with provincial dialects,) and a careful correction of those who, from organic causes, can not well pronounce certain letters, are recommended. The boys so engaged formed a special *Decuria* (*ordo*;) but as soon as they became "firm and safe," they passed into the second *ordo*, where they were obliged to syllable the *Donatus*; also to read the *questiones grammaticæ Philippi* (Phil. Melancthon's grammar;) to practice spelling, and learn every day a portion from the German Catechism of Luther. After finishing *Donatus*, they exercised in order third, in the *questiones grammaticæ* exclusively, and read Cato, (*Sententiis et Distichis*.) Writing was practiced, with all the other branches. If there were too many boys to permit writing a copy for each, the copies were made on the tablet (blackboard,) and the copy-books shown to the teacher from day to day. The practice of basing instruction in language on the acquisition of a stock of words, is found in the regulations, which prescribe that every day, before leaving school, the smallest classes should write two Latin words from *Adami Siberi nomenclatura*; the other classes from the *nomenclatura Sebaldi Heydeni* or *epitome Adriani Xunii*, from the tablet into their little books, and recite them the next morning.

In class II, instruction proper in the Latin language, and the practice of speaking Latin, commences. The object, however, is not a conversational Latin, but a thorough knowledge of grammar, and the teachers are directed how to proceed to make the boys like grammar instead of hating it. In this class, from 6 to 7 in the morning, were used the *Mimi publiani*, (P. Syrus,) and after finishing those, Cato. The teacher should

read no more than the pupils can understand, and then "expound (*cor- arponiren*) to them until they can expound (*nacherponiren*) after him." From the reading lesson a *nomen* and *verbum* are selected, on which, after Donatus or the grammar, to practice declination and conjugation. Against all progress beyond these limits express caution is made, but when the boys are familiar with those exercises, the *questiones grammaticæ* shall be taken up from 7 to 9, so that each day they learn one or two rules. The pupils engaged in the above form the first *Decuria*; those who advance to the *octo partibus orationis* constitute the next *Decuria*. After finishing the exercises in etymology, the teacher shall give to the pupils a portion of the Latin catechism, expound the same, and have them expound it after him. Writing-exercises take place from 12 to 1, for which, on Sundays and holy evenings, are prescribed the Latin Gospel, on other days the *Proverbia Salomonis*. The remaining hours of the afternoon are devoted to the *Epistolæ Ciceronis minoribus*; and thus concentration on one author was secured.

The studies of class III are very important, because they include Latin composition, with which the *exercitium etymologiæ et syntaxis* is to be practiced diligently, and good attention paid to phrases and *formulas loquendi*. If the *Fabulæ Camenarii* is prescribed from 6 to 7, the teacher is directed to dictate the beautiful phrases to his pupils, "that they may, in *loquendo et scribendo*, profit thereby."

Of late the value of exercises in vocabularies has been again discussed; the question whether vocabularies should be arranged according to subjects or to derivation, being still undecided, while it is not denied that the proper use of words should be acquired by the composition of phrases, and their more frequent connection be shown. The school-order decides in favor of the etymological principle when it says: "the preceptor shall, in *repetitionibus*, take a *verbum* from the *Dictionaria*, and show its entire *progeniem* or *propagationem*, and how the one is derived from the other, also in phrases."

The hours of 7 to 9 are employed in *questionibus grammaticis*, as drawn from *Philippo*, and to the *selectioribus Ciceronis epistolis*. After the *musica* follows, from 12 to 2, *Terentius*, which the boys shall learn by heart and recite the next day. The reason for preferring Terence at that day is given by the following passage:

"Because *Terentius* is quite *pure et propriè* written, its phrases shall be much and diligently practiced with the boys; also translated into good German, that the speaking and writing in Latin may be furthered thereby." The well justified objections which are still made against reading Terence, have not escaped the author of the school order. This is evident, when it is recommended to consider which is the "*consilium auctoris*," and which not; that he speaks not in his own person, but describes various persons and characters, as for instance in *Adelph.* I. 2, Micio, the words, verse 22: *non est flagitium*, etc., are not spoken in earnest, but repeated to show the auditors the cause of his *dissimulatio*,

(sc. III. v. 1: *nec nil neque omnia hæc sunt quæ dicit cet.*;) but though one would agree to all that follows, except the last sentence: *a Item*, in these and similar *locis* the *præceptores* must explain, how the blind *Ethnici* knew nothing of God and His works, as little as the reckless Christians know, adding an *exemplum* and *testimonium sacrae Scripturae*, how God terribly punishes such vices, and in every manner see that no vexation results to the young."

"From 2 to 3 every day, they shall read a rule of syntax, together with the *exemplis* following, and such others as the *preceptor* may invent, to be well explained and applied *ad regulum*. Excellent instructions on repetitions are given. The *exercitia styli* shall be given out every Wednesday afternoon, and be corrected eight days thereafter (for which, if necessary, half a day or the entire day may be taken.) The *exercitium* in this class should be a short, easy argument from the last *lectionibus*, as near as possible in the same words, yet changed in *genera*, *numeri*, *personæ*, *casus*, *modi*, and *tempora*, and the pupils must be instructed where to find such argument, that they may have an example to aid in imitating the *phrases authorum*."

The directions for correcting the exercises are excellent. "The mistakes made by the pupils should be pointed out in a distinct but friendly manner, so that all hear it. This requires patience and gentleness, since boys will often blunder; but when one is impatient and passionate towards them, especially in the *exercitio styli*, they become faint-hearted, timid and averse."

"It is a very practical way to prevent deceptions and copying, to prepare once a month an *argumentum* in presence of the teacher, while all speaking and questioning of the boys among themselves must be prohibited."

Class IV is distinguished from the preceding, by beginning the study of Greek, and the attention paid to superior style. All the hours of the forenoon are destined for a thorough exercise in the *quæstiones grammaticæ*, and for reading from *integrum opus Epistolarum familiarium Ciceronis*. In the latter, special regard should be had to the *figuras constructionis* and *species metaplasmi*. The hours from 12 to 2, after the *musica*, are devoted to the repetition of syntax and to learning the *principia prosodiæ*, as contained in the *quæstionibus*; moreover reading of *Terent. Andria*, after which *Cicero de amicitia*, next *Terent. Eunuchus*, and when this comedy has been finished, *Cicero de senectute*. From 2 to 3 they commence Greek after the *rudimentis grammatica Græcæ*, an abstract of the *grammatica Philippi*, like the one written by *Martinum Crusium* for young scholars. The *exercitium styli* is here designated as *pro repetitione Epistolarum Ciceronis*, and the arrangement is as in the former class, only that the arguments are demanded more sharply. If it is distinctly said that the scholars shall be instructed how to close their *Epistolas*—this form is the only one—with the *Calendis*, *Nonis*, and *Idibus*. This rests on a perfect imitation of Roman antiquity, which also

embraced the calendar. Only one hour is set apart for science; on Friday *musica* being omitted, and a lesson in arithmetic taken instead. This is continued in the next class; in class IV they shall not advance beyond the four rules, and in class V, arithmetic is to be completed.

According to the programme for Class V, the studies of the first four classes are reviewed. Dialectics and rhetoric are taught in this class; and should be acquired in one year, to begin and finish about Easter or St. Michael's, that in the inspection and promotion, the *perfectum* of the boys and the diligence of the teachers might be shown to better advantage, and the pupils not delayed in their studies. Dialectics precede the other lessons every day. The teacher shall first interpret a *præceptum* or two, and *nem ipsam per exempla* make plain; and before he gives a new lesson he should repeat and ascertain that the former has been learned. That the teachers should not be burdened with too much dictating, nor the pupils with too much learning by heart, the *erotemata dialecticæ Philippi* were not to be used in the beginning, but only the *præcepta*, as well as an abstract of the *quæstiones* by Lucas Lossius. When they are gone through, the pupils who have learned well and been removed to a higher Decuria, may read the *erotemata* for themselves, and expound them; but the teacher must assist in the repetitions, and see that beside the *præcepta*, the scholars understand the *exempla*, and learn to form such themselves. A similar course is taken, between 7 and 8, with the larger *grammatica Philippi*, which the pupils shall expound themselves, while the teacher aids by explaining all the *vocabula Latinis cerbis*. The rules must be learned by heart and recited. Special consideration is given again to *prosodia*. Besides illustration by examples, the teachers shall require those having "a good nature and good inclination" to learn to write *carmina*. The rhetoric by Melancthon and the *Epitome* by Dr. George Major are introduced; of the latter is said that it *per quæstiones* into fine *epitome*, and is adorned with beautiful phrases, from which the *usus artis* on the *Latinos auctores* is applied. The examples which Major has taken from Cicero and Livy should be read, and the *argumentum*, the *partes orationis*, the *status*, the *argumenta confirmationis*, how the parts are illustrated and treated, be shown.

A general instruction, undoubtedly destined especially for higher classes, is given in regard to music: "It should not take too much time nor withdraw from other studies; the *Compendium musicæ Fabri* contains all necessary to be known by boys; the lessons may be limited to a few certain days of the week."

For the hours from 12 to 2 are prescribed the larger *syntaxis Philippi Melancthonis*, *Virgilius*, or also *Volumina pro schola Argentinensi collecta*, and the *Officia Ciceronis*, one after the other. While for the first is ordered explication with examples and directions, as to how such beautiful *formulas loquendi* should be imitated in reading and writing; the *officia* are to have a *grammaticum exercitium*.

For the instruction in Greek the grammar by Martin Crusiüs has been

retained; for reading are prescribed the Greek fables of Æsop, Isocrates' *ad Demonium*, Xenophon's *Cyropedia*, Homer or Hesiod, the *gnomæ sententiæ Græcæ*, especially *Nazianzeni*—according to the ability of the pupils in the various *Decuriæ*.

As dialectics and rhetoric are taught in class V, the *argumenta* for the *exercitium styli* must be longer and more definite, and inclosed in *periodos*, that the pupils may accustom themselves to composition; they consist no longer in letters alone, but alternate with an *exordium*, a *narratio*, *locus communis*, *confirmatio*, *peroratio*, *descriptio alicujus rei*, *tractatio fabulæ*, in which they should be so drilled that it would be easy to them afterwards to write *declamationes*. The teachers should not see how long but how good the *scripta* are, that the *phrases* and *imitationes* are after Cicero, "otherwise the boys put together many *sententias* from other *scriptoribus*, without much sense, and give no attention to *puritatem linguæ*." Then follows this exhortation to teachers: "That the pupils should be told where they have erred in *inventione*, in *collatione rerum*, and in *elocutione verborum*, and how to correct it;" it is added as a rule for the teacher "that he should not neglect *rationem punctorum*, that they might learn *commata*, *membra*, and *periodos*."

Instruction in religion is treated in a separate chapter on "the effect of the fear of God and of discipline." "The word of God, by being known to youth, will work immediately on their hearts; the custom of prayer and song will awaken devotion, and at least prevent a disturbance of others; the scholars shall worship in and with the congregation." In the morning and afternoon, before school commences, a hymn is sung (the *Veni Sancte* and *Veni Creator Spiritus*) after the usual *Collectis*; also a Christian song before the children are dismissed for the day, by all the pupils of the school. In regard to religious instruction, Class I have some portions of the catechism in German, at 9 o'clock A. M. and 3 P. M.; and the others something from *Janus Cizio*, as appended to the *quæstionibus grammaticæ*. The pious feeling of that period did not permit any other instruction on Saturday, in all schools, great or small, than such *lectiones* and *exercitia* on spiritual and heavenly things by which the young would be taught the way to salvation. So all the hours of a Saturday, before noon, in Class I, were devoted to the catechism, and those who could do so were required to read the Gospels for next Sunday in German and Latin. From 6 to 7 o'clock, in classes II and III, was read the Latin catechism; in IV and V, the Greek catechism; from 7 to 8, in classes II and III, the *Evangelicum dominicale* in Latin; in IV and V, in Greek; from 8 to 9, in class II, psalms in German; in class III, psalms in Latin; in classes IV and V, *Jobi Magdeburgii sententiæ sacræ*, *Historiæ sacræ Fabricii*, *Pietas puerilis Fabricii* and *Adami Siberi* were read. Divine service was attended by the school *in toto*. The scholars assembled in their class rooms, and, two by two, proceeded to church, under supervision of their teachers. The teachers are instructed to keep a strict watch over their behavior and see that they take notes of the sermon.

Discipline was very strict, and extended to the conduct outside of the school. *Observatores morum* were appointed for the main streets, to prevent idling, playing, and mischief. For serious misdemeanors the punishment of the rod was inflicted in presence of the other scholars, in order to impress them by example; such punishment being inflicted by the teacher. Gentleness and seriousness should be united; wrath and passion was forbidden, and the punishment by word or exhortation should be preferred to corporeal punishment. The school-order indicates the barbarous customs of the age, by prohibiting all blows on the head, the nose or cheek; the pulling up by the ears, twisting the same, or pulling the hair.

Since the system of instruction was useless without able teachers, the consistory is authorized to admit to an examination the candidates who send good testimonials in regard to their character. They should then be tested as to their familiarity with method and discipline, by trial-lessons in one of the classes of the Latin school, before the teachers, and especially in grammar; then follows an examination in religion before the consistory, to ascertain if the candidate's belief is not tainted with error. On passing this examination, and signing the *Fermula Concordiæ*, he was recommended for a teachership.

No schoolmaster was permitted to practice "in law or medicine," in connection with his office, but should devote himself exclusively to the school; nor were teachers allowed to give private lessons outside of the school-room.

The regulation makes special provision for poor scholars, recommending to magistrates and inspectors to provide with all diligence that none go to school hungry, nor in want of what they need. The clergy should exhort the wealthy of their charges to have an open table, and to give such aid as they can offer, a room and bed, to the poor students.

After the "particular schools" follow the "royal schools," of which there were three, at Meissen, Pforte, and Grimma. Their spirit is characterized in the preamble: "Though honest and upright people, especially schoolmasters, know what they may do or not do without a written regulation, yet, as they also are weak men like other people, and prone to forget the duties of their office, it appears necessary, where many of them are to live together, that a certain order should be prescribed, after which all things are done in a becoming manner."

In the instruction for the rector it is surprising to read that "he should diligently read all authors, especially Quintilian, who wrote how to govern a school and how to educate youth." As the object of all Christian schools, it defines: 1, fear of God and true faith; 2, discipline; 3, to train the young to become learned and sensible.

The government of the royal schools was severe, and extreme punishments, and imprisonment even, were sometimes applied in extreme cases. The teachers are advised to overlook little faults.

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We now pass to the German schools, which consisted of one class only, generally divided into three groups: those who commence to learn the letters; those who have advanced to syllabing, and those who begin to read and write; within these groups subdivisions were often made. The books used in these schools were the Lutheran catechism, the book of psalms, the proverbs of Solomon, Jesus Sirach, the New Testament. From the order for these schools has originated the custom of two children standing before the altar in church, during Sunday afternoon-service, and reciting, by questions and answers, one of the parts of the catechism, and which is to this day practiced in the country throughout Wurtemberg. Clergymen are the inspectors of the German schools, which they are instructed to visit every week.

The University of Leipzig was enlarged under the patronage of elector Augustus, who raised the number of stipendiates for poor students from 70 to 150, for theologians, without diminishing those for the departments of jurisprudence and medicine. Wittenberg had four stipendiates in the school of theology and twenty in that of philosophy.

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The University of Leipzig was enlarged under the patronage of elector Augustus, who raised the number of stipendiates for poor students from 70 to 150, for theologians, without diminishing those for the departments of jurisprudence and medicine. Wittenberg had four stipendiates in the school of theology and twenty in that of philosophy.

This prosperous condition was somewhat disturbed under his son

Christian I, (1584-91,) who left the government in the hands of chancellor Krell, (Krell was beheaded in 1601;) but Christian II, (1591 to 1611,) son of the duke, who had grown up under the guardianship of the strict Lutheran duke Frederic William of Saxe-Weimar, reëstablished the government of Augustus. He issued, in 1601, a special "order for the royal schools." Under Christian's brother George I, (1611-56,) the most severe misfortune befell Saxony. Though at first it kept aloof from the war, the country was, in 1630, dragged into it, and after the separate treaty of peace, in 1635, with the emperor at Prague, was entirely exposed to the invasion and destruction of property by the Swedes.

Among the distinguished persons proceeding from Saxon schools in this period, we must not forget to remember Paul Flemming and Paul Gerhard.

The best evidence of the endurance of the German spirit is that Germany was not totally ruined by the Thirty Years' War: and its spiritual life preserved. The princes of Saxony, John George II, (1656-1680,) John George III, (1680-1691,) John George IV, (1691-1694,) undertook with great zeal to heal the wounds and repair the losses of their country, and under great financial difficulties managed to maintain the royal schools. In a decree of visitation of 1658, lectures in history are first added to the branches of instruction, though still after the old division into four world-monarchies. Of learned men are named the rectors of the school of the Cross at Dresden, John Böhme (Bohemus *d.* 1676,) and his successor, Egenolf (*d.* 1689.) The former was imperial poet-laureate, and had published, in 1643, the odes of Horace in German translation. His other school-books: *Homeriani et Virgiliani operum analysis dichotomica generalis* (1652,) and *Homeriani operis totius analysis dichotomica generalis* (1664,) characterize the method of interpretation of ancient authors at that time, for which a grammatical, a rhetorical and dialectical analysis was thought absolutely required. *Jacob Thomasius*, (born 1622,) who in 1643 was professor of philosophy at the university, afterwards rector of St. Thomas' school, is known as an eminent teacher; and for the honor of Saxony and Grimma, is placed by his side the name of Samuel Puffendorf, whose works promoted the spirit of scientific study. (Puffendorf was educated in Grimma, 1645-1650; died in Berlin, October 26th, 1694, shortly after having received a title of nobility.) *Philipp Jacob Spener*, from 1686 pastor of the electoral church, and church counselor in Dresden, had scarcely obtained influence over the university at Leipzig, when he introduced the *Collegia philobiblica*, which raised such a storm among the orthodoxy that Spener had to exchange his position for one in Berlin. The great *Leibnitz*, born, 1646, in Leipzig, left his native city because in his youth he was refused admission into the school of jurisprudence; and *Christian Thomasius*, born, 1655, in Leipzig, excited so much enmity by his views on the persecution of witches, that he preferred to go to Halle, in 1694, and aid in the establishment of that eminent rival university.

Frederic Augustus I, (1694–1733,) the second son of George II, succeeded to the throne. He adopted the Roman Catholic faith in order to obtain the royal crown of Poland. The invasion of the Swedes (1706–1707) so disturbed the country by its requisitions, that the royal school at Grimma would have been disbanded, if William of Vitztham had not loaned it one hundred bushels of grain. The luxury of the court brought many treasures of art into Saxony, but the habits of the French nobility with their poisoning influence, also found entrance. From this period, date many school-regulations. The desire of the court to show that the change of religion had not effected a change in other relations, led to many school visitations and inquiries; and on the 24th of November, 1724, was published an instruction on the manner of reforming the German schools in the electorate of Saxony. The books of Cellarius (*d.* 1707) were found in the schools, and Benjamin Hederich (born 1695, *d.* 1746) commenced the Lexicon, which, for more than a century, has served the youth in their studies. The university also made progress. Not only were many private foundations made over to it, but literary studies took a higher standard. J. J. Gesner taught for a time; in the interpretation of classics labored Kortte, (*d.* 1721,) and John Fr. Chrest, (born 1701, in 1729 professor of history, 1739 regular professor of poesy, *d.* 1756,) published his interpretation of ancient works of art. In history, John J. Mascov, (*d.* 1761,) undertook his history of the Germans, which, though very far excelled by the astonishing researches of modern times, will always be valued as the work of a refined scholar.

Under the government of Frederic Augustus II, (1733 to 1763,) little was done for schools. This king lived in pleasure and luxury, and left the government to his wicked minister, Brühl. Still at this epoch flourished the poets of the Leipzig school; at their head the pupils of the royal school of Meissen, Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, who, like none other since Luther, revived the German spirit of liberty; and the glorious Gellert, who extended his influence to the lowest ranks of the people, and conquered the esteem even of those who pretended contempt for German culture and literature. Nor did they want distinguished teachers and schools. Saxony gave the early training to Christian Gottlob Heyne, who in 1763 removed to Göttingen. John A. Ernesti, for whom in 1742 an extraordinary professorship was established, developed a most grateful and successful activity. Who is not familiar with the name of John James Reiske, (born 1716, professor of the Arabic in 1748, rector of the school of St. Nicolas from 1758 to 1774;) and John Fr. Fischer, born 1724, conrector of St. Thomas' in 1751, extraordinary professor of humanitas in 1762, rector of St. Thomas' from 1767 to 1799? It must also be mentioned that Winkelmann lived in Dresden from 1748 to 1752, where he made the studies preparatory to his great works. Nor should we fail to mention, that the Silesian and the Seven Years' Wars laid almost insupportable burdens on the country, yet they were very different from those of the Thirty Years' War, as the leaders of armies were

moved by a more humane spirit, which suffered no schools or scientific institutions to be demolished. At this period originated the Moravian brotherhood, which soon engaged in the work of education and instruction.

The short government of Frederic Christian (1763) initiated wholesome measures for healing the wounds of the war and removing the oppressive taxation of the people. Few rulers have occupied a throne as long as Augustus III, the Just, (1763–1827,) and his government was one of humane absolutism. By mandate of August 7th, 1766, he reminded parents of the duty to send their children to schools, and a new school-regulation was drawn up in 1769, and published in 1773; its author, John Aug. Ernesti. It is full of the valuable results of a wide and varied experience, and shows a wise consideration of the circumstances of the time, and generous enthusiasm for the cause. The people then desired universal popular education, and the first care was to find able teachers. This led to the establishment of teachers' seminaries. Dinter was the first to establish a private training school, but soon passed to a public institution founded in 1788 near Dresden. The second seminary was established in Weissenfels, which (since 1815) belongs to Prussia. Other seminaries were opened, viz., in Freiberg, (by Sam. Gottlob Frisch,) Zwickau and Plauen.

Much was done for elementary schools in 1805, and a decree of March 4th made it necessary for every child to have a knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and of the principal truths of religion, before it could participate in the sacrament. Another edict enjoined on the consistories the duty of a thorough superintendence of schools. The school age was fixed at from six to fourteen years; and if a final examination was not satisfactory, the child had to continue at school after his fourteenth year. Fines and forfeitures were attached to neglect of schools and the requirements of the law. The salaries of teachers were considerably increased; in 1805 there were only 191 schools, the teachers of which received from 80 to 100 thalers salary; and in 602 schools the pay was even less. The government that year appropriated 11,532 thalers for teachers' wages.

Dresden had, before this, a poor-school, which, during the siege of 1760, was burnt; was rebuilt in 1791. With a second one, founded by private means, a Real-school and a department of industry was connected in 1785 and 1786. Leipzig was in advance of all other cities in the state, as it possessed the Hohenthal poor-school, founded in 1774; and in 1788, bookseller John Wendler bequeathed 10,000 thalers for a free-school for forty-six children, which, in 1792, was enlarged by uniting with it the city free-school, and also a workshop for such as chose to learn a trade and acquire a practical education.

Samuel Heinicke erected the first institution for the deaf and dumb, and received aid from the elector in 1777; this institute was placed under the care of the University of Leipzig in 1786.

Burgher-schools originated later. Dresden transformed the Latin

school into a burgher-school in 1803. In Leipzig, Gedike was the rector of the first school of that name, in 1804.

In the Latin schools or gymnasiums, natural science and national history were introduced by Adam Daniel Richter (b. 1782) in Zittau.

The studies of philology received a new impulse from Samuel Frederic Morus, (b. 1798,) professor of theology in Leipzig. Frederic Wolfgang Reiz (b. 1790) led the way to a critical interpretation of ancient literature, by his acute observation on its grammatical and metrical laws; and Godfrey Hermann followed and surpassed him, in transferring the principles of Kant's philosophy to linguistic research, while Christian Daniel Beck (born 1757, d. 1832,) learned in almost every science, founded philological societies among the students; and both laid the basis of a philological seminary in Leipzig. The 400th anniversary of this University was celebrated, amid the din of war, in 1809. In 1815, a professorship of pedagogy was created.

Two acts of April 23d and 28th, 1811, obliged the parishes to provide all necessary material aids of instruction for elementary schools; the existing branches of instruction were made obligatory in them, and frequent inspection of schools by the superintendents and clerical inspectors was secured.

The teachers' seminary at Freiberg was enlarged, and connected with the gymnasium; the seminary at Bautzen was established by large private donations; at the same time that the seminary at Dresden was endowed by Baron Fletsche.

By the act of 1831, the minister of Worship and Instruction became the superior authority in all educational matters and subordinate to it four District Boards of Inspection were created. One of the first orders of the new ministry contained the conditions for admittance into the two royal-schools at Meissen and Grimma. Great difficulties were met in grading and organizing the city-schools, and obtaining suitable teachers, as the advanced state of all the industrial interests demanded a much more extended preparation for the pursuits of life. Many exclusively Latin schools disappeared, until the number of gymnasiums was reduced to eleven. Mathematics and natural sciences gained a place in the real and burgher-schools, while the correct writing and fluent speaking of Latin were required in the first class gymnasium. Leipzig established the first real-school, and its success led to the establishment of others in Plauen and Zittau, and in 1860 the "regulation for real-schools in the kingdom of Saxony" was issued. This regulation was preceded by an order in 1848 determining the qualifications of candidates for positions in the higher schools, and providing a commission of examination, consisting of professors of the university, presided over by a royal delegate. The creation of the pedagogic seminary and the enlargement of the philological seminary belongs to this period.

Saxony has in 1868 the following gymnasiums: 1, the two royal-schools at Grimma and Meissen, supported by endowments; 2, the

Thomas and Nicolai school at Leipzig; and the gymnasium of the Holy Cross in Dresden; 3, the Vitzthum gymnasium at Dresden, a private foundation; 4, the gymnasiums in Plauen, Zwickau, Freiberg, Bautzen, and Zittau, partially supported by the State and the cities.

Tuition fees are from 30 to 60 dollars per year. The average number of pupils per class is 40. All gymnasiums are Evangelical-Lutheran. The two royal schools are under the direct administration of the ministry of instruction; a gymnasial committee stands between the ministry and the other gymnasiums, consisting of a clergyman of the city, a delegate of the city-council, and an elected member. The director is a member ex-officio. The scholars in the gymnasiums number about 2,700, and the graduates average 150 a year. Of regular teachers there are 165; and assistant teachers for singing, drawing, and gymnastics. The teachers of the higher classes obtain the title of professor and class-teacher (*Ober-lehrer*.) The total expense for gymnasiums is about 300,000 thalers; the contribution of the State in 1867 was 52,788 thalers; tuition fees amounted to about 80,000 thalers. For admittance into the lowest class, the age of 9 years is required; graduation generally takes place at the age of 19. Hours of school, 7 to 11 A. M. in Summer; 8 to 12 A. M. in Winter; 2 to 4 P. M.

The following branches, (except Hebrew, gymnastics, and drawing,) are obligatory, and receive attention per week as follows:

Class.	Religion.	German.	Latin.	Hebrew.	Greek.	French.	Mathe- matics.	Physics and Nat. Hist'y.	History.	Geog- raphy.
I a.	2	3	8	6	2	2	4	2	3	—
I b.	2	3	8	6	2	2	4	2	3	—
II a.	2	2	10	6	2	2	4	2	3	—
II b.	2	2	10	6	—	2	4	2	3	—
III a.	2	2	10	6	—	2	3	—	2	2
III b.	2	2	10	6	—	2	3	—	2	2
IV.	3	2-3	9-10	6	—	2	3	2	2	2
V.	3	2-3	9-10	—	—	2	3	2	2	2
VI.	3	4	9-10	—	—	—	3	1	2	2

There are 7 real-schools, and 1 incomplete; but 2 more are in organization; they number 1,892 scholars and 151 teachers.

For the elementary-schools a law of June 6th, 1835, prescribes instruction in religion, grammar, and reading, calligraphy, orthography, written compositions, mental and practical arithmetic; natural history, national history and geography, singing, and gymnastics.

Private schools are subject to the same conditions and under the same authorities and control. Tuition fees range from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 18, and in cities to 36 thalers per year; the minimum salary of teachers is 150 thalers; in cities of 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants it is 180 thalers; in cities above 10,000 inhabitants, 200 thalers. Every five years the salary is raised, the first from 180 to 210, 240, 270; the second from 210 to 250, 320, 360; in the third class, from 240 to 280, 320, 360 thalers.

The communes must maintain the school property, and are required to establish one school for each 60 children of school age.

All schools are confessional; but the members of every Christian denomination allowed in the kingdom may establish special schools for their children, by permission of the ministry of instruction, whose duty it is to see that these schools are established in accordance with the laws of public schools. Wherever there is no school of their denomination, children are obliged to go to the village or district-school, not, however, to take part in the religious instruction, for which the clerical authorities of the denomination are responsible. In this respect the local authorities may even employ force. The inhabitants of a village belonging to another denomination must, if they have no school of their own, contribute their share towards the expenses of the village-school; their school-taxes are somewhat reduced, however, if their children do not take part in the religious instruction of the village-school. Every school has a board of trustees, under the presidency of one or the other of the clergymen, and composed of at least three members of the local authorities; in towns the directors are members. Where several villages form one school-district, they must all be proportionally represented. It belongs to the board of trustees to see that all the school regulations are properly carried out.

The inspection of schools is exercised by superintendents, in connection with the judicial officers of a district, and extends especially to the material condition of the school, modes of instruction, scholars, and teachers.

In 1867, the country had 2,500,000 inhabitants; 400,229 children of school age, of which 199,446 are boys and 200,783 girls, or about 17 per cent. of the population. Those of the Evangelical denomination were instructed in 1,936 public elementary schools, by 3,400 regular and 542 assistant teachers; those of the Catholic faith in 40 schools, with 54 teachers. The employment of female teachers is becoming popular.

Of school-districts there are about 1200; city-schools near 300; to every 600 inhabitants there is 1 teacher. About 1,000 schools have but 1 teacher each. The total salaries of teachers amount to about 1,000,000 thalers; total expenses for elementary schools, about 1,500,000 thalers.

Sunday-schools, which are destined to complete the elementary education, had, in 1865, in 93 schools, 7,024 scholars. Of poor-schools there are about 80 in cities; of free-schools, based on foundations, 5. Factory-schools, in which the proprietors allow the children to be instructed in the evening, in order to use them during the day, must in future be conducted as public schools.

If possible, boys and girls are taught in separate class-rooms; and from 16 to 30 hours per week. Wherever the number of children of school age in a school rises above 60, assistant teachers are employed.

Of teachers' seminaries there are 10 Evangelical, 2 Catholic, and 1 for female teachers; they generally have 6 classes each, in which the following branches of instruction are properly distributed: pedagogy, catechism, religion, German language and grammar, arithmetic and geometry;

history, geography, natural science, physics, penmanship, drawing, music on violin, piano, and organ; singing and thorough-bass; gymnastics. In the seminary for female teachers, French and English take the place of music and gymnastics. The number of teachers at seminaries is 120; pupils average 1,300; the State contributes 58,097 thalers. Three examinations are held: one for admittance; the final examination; and two years after that, an examination for State-service. Corresponding to these, three numbers or grades of certificates are given. Teachers now may attend a course at a university for two years, and receive a diploma for higher schools. Teachers' conferences are held from time to time. Superannuated teachers receive pensions, the maximum of which is two-thirds of their former salary.

[To the above historical development of public instruction in Saxony, from the pen of Dr. R. Dietsch, Director of the Royal School at Grimma, we add a more formal exposition of the system as it now is, drawn up by Dr. Hermann Wimmer of Dresden. H. B.]

The public schools of Saxony may be divided into *Volksschulen*, or common schools—schools for the great mass of the people, or common schools, and *Gelehrte Schulen*, literally, learned schools, or schools of higher learning. The *Volksschulen* comprises (1,) the lowest elementary schools in the country and small villages; (2,) the burgher, or higher village and town-school; (3,) normal schools, for training teachers for the above schools; (4,) higher burgher, and real-schools, or non-classical high-schools; (5,) industrial schools, culminating in the polytechnic or higher scientific schools. The *Gelehrte Schulen* embraces the secondary schools, gymnasia, progymnasia, and the university.

1. COMMON SCHOOLS.

1 Village schools, (*dorfschulen*.) They are attended by the children of the parish from their sixth year of age, when they become *schulpflichtig*, (i.e., due to school by law,) to the fourteenth or fifteenth year,—full eight years,—in which they are, after three to six months' instruction in religion by the parish clergyman, "confirmed" as Christians, and, after that, for the first time, admitted to the Lord's Table. This act implies dismissal from school, which takes place a few days before or after the confirmation. The children of the clergyman are generally educated by himself at home; those of the "gentlemen," first by a governess, then by a tutor or in a boarding school. In larger villages or small towns, where there are more families of some rank, a little private school is frequently established by them and kept by a candidate of theology, or a candidate for the *schulamt*, (i.e., school office, employment;) or a graduate of the normal school; rarely by a candidate of the higher "schulamt," or graduate of the university, who has passed his examination for teaching in gymnasia, real schools, etc. By the *common school law* of Saxony, drawn by the late Dr. Schulze in Dresden, and passed in 1835,*

* *Das Elementar-Volksschulgesetz für das Königreich Sachsen, nebst Verordnung vom Juni 1835, von Dr. G. Schulze, Dresden, 1835.* pp. 236. For the law see p. 32. The ministerial ordinance belonging to it, pp. 117. Its appendix includes Pedagogical literature, Schö.

the village schools since then, are divided into two separate classes, of which the higher is generally instructed in the forenoon, (7-11;) the lower in the afternoon,) 1-4, except Wednesdays and Saturdays, when there is no school in the afternoon, and the two classes are successively instructed during two hours each in the forenoon. If there are more than one hundred and twenty children, sixty to each class, an assistant teacher must be appointed.*

Attendance is enforced by law, (by fine,) and the teachers are obliged to deliver, at the end of every month, a list of non-attendants to the school committee. The latter consists of the parish clergyman, called local school inspector, the magistrate of the village or town, and at least two more elected parishioners or councilmen. Of course the clergyman is the chief inspector and visitor. But he is also in this quality subordinate to the "Superintendent" or ecclesiastical superior of the district, who is, at the same time, chief minister in the largest town of a certain section, and inspector of all churches and schools in that district. The higher boards are the "*Kreisdirection*," i.e., government of the circle, (Dresden, Leipzig, Bautzen, Zwickau,) presided over by the church and school councilor attached to it; and after that, the ministry of ecclesiastical affairs and of public instruction, and especially the privy church and school councilor, charged with the common schools.

The school money paid by the parents of each child attending school, is, lawfully, one groschen a week, but in many cases reduced to one-half or two-thirds. This amount will be increased by the present law. Since a regular compensation has been settled on the teacher, this school money is collected by the village, and the teacher paid out of the school funds of the parish. In a village with a church, and, in former days, only such had a public school, the schoolmaster is, at the same time *cantor*, (*chor-ister*,) organist, sexton, and, in such quality has, besides his free dwelling in the school house, (which he has in all cases,) the use of some land, some money from every house in the parish, some income from marriages, baptisms, funerals, etc., and, in former times, other emoluments, as loaves of bread, billets of wood, &c. But these are now all settled in money. Good places are worth from four to five hundred thalers; the best, perhaps, seven hundred. The lawful minimum is one hundred and fifty thalers, increasing after every fifth year, and raised from time to time by

houses and school-rooms, with four cuts; female handwork; Sunday Schools; infant school; school tables and registers; index. Many German states, as Prussia, have no such law yet; but a collection of decrees, ordinances or regulations. In Prussia, the three regulatives of Oct. 1854, are the last and the most remarkable.

* In Prussia, a great many schools, especially in the province of Saxony, have had the same departments which had been in use in many of our schools a long time before 1835, but others, as well here as there, were one-classed schools, where all the children attended together during all school time. It was proposed by many influential men, e.g., by Goltzsch, principal of the normal school in Stettin, to establish in Prussia too, throughout, two classes, but in the regulatives, the minister says that he has no reason to make any change, but that he wishes all children to attend together in one room. This, therefore, is henceforth, (i.e., until recalled by some other regulative,) to be considered as the legal rule in Prussia, and all new school houses must be built with a room large enough to accommodate all children.

law. Since money is rapidly increasing in value, the fixed sum is no longer equivalent to what it was fixed for, nor to the wants of daily life; hence the "*Lehrernoth*," i.e., want of teachers, (active and passive,) is fast increasing, but more so in other parts of Germany; as in Prussia.

The schoolmaster, like the clergyman, is appointed either by the government, or, where a manor exists, by the lord of the manor; but, when once appointed, can not be removed unless for a flagrant crime against morality or government.

Religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic, are the principal objects of instruction. Geography and history are commonly confined to the knowledge of Saxony and Germany. This, as well as the scanty instruction in the fields of nature, is generally got from the Reader. Reading is taught by the "*Lautirmethode*," writing by copies, (by the black-board,) or in connection with reading; arithmetic by a combination of slate and mental arithmetic.

In former times the school was almost exclusively in the parish village; the children of other villages had to walk to that parish school. But, fortunately, this has been altered, in the most urgent cases, by building by-schools, *nebenschulen*. In such villages as have become too extensive, two or three miles long, another school is established at the side most distant from church and school.

The school year commences the Wednesday after Easter, with vacations, at Whitsuntide of three days, at Easter and at Christmas of eight days, and about two weeks in harvest time. There is no difference between winter and summer schools, as in many villages of Prussia.

2. BURGHER SCHOOLS or town schools, (*burgerschulen*, *stadtschulen*.) These are divided into boys' and girls' schools, and each of them in smaller towns into three or four separate classes, instructed by the rector or principal, by the cantor, organist, sexton and other teachers. Larger towns, such as Dresden, have as many burgher or ward schools as are wanted in proportion to their extent, with a great number of teachers that have no connection with the church, but are under the inspection of the clergyman. Here, especially in smaller towns, the class system exists to its fullest extent; that is the rector is the only teacher of the first class, the cantor of the second, etc. In the larger towns, with more than three classes and teachers, teaching according to branches is practiced to some extent; that is, a certain teacher gives instruction in geography and history in all, or at least the higher classes.*

Boys and girls are generally mixed in the elementary class, and, though they are, after that, separated in different schools, the rector is nevertheless principal of the girls' school also. Sometimes, with a large number of pupils, parallel classes are established. *Leipzig*, with about 40,000 inhabitants, had, at first, owing to the small compass of the city, one burgher school with many separate classes for boys and girls. The in-

* Nowhere, not even in the higher institutions, where the class system prevails to a greater extent, except the university, is it applied to such a degree as, e. g., in the High School of Philadelphia.

crease of population, (70,000,) and of houses, then caused the erection of a second burgher school, with a vice-principal. This possible concentration of the burgher school in a wealthy and intelligent town, together with the great merits of Dr. Vogel, well seconded by a liberal council, which permitted the permanent employment of graduates of the university, caused its high standing. Since then, a third burgher school has been founded with an independent principal, and a fourth will, before long, follow. The school rate is highest in the first burgher school. Besides, there exist two municipal poor schools, (*armenschulen*.) *Dresden*, with 108,000 inhabitants, has, besides four poor schools, three burgher and five district or ward schools; (the school rate making the chief difference,) all of them nearly equal.

Most of the teachers in the burgher schools, and all those in the village schools are graduates from the normal schools.

The legal school time is here, as elsewhere, eight years. Private instruction at home or in schools is allowed, but no one, except such as are prepared for teaching, (i.e., clergyman or teacher,) is permitted himself to teach his children without the help of the school or a proper master.

Methodology is most advanced in these schools. For, in general, it may be said that pedagogy, or the art of teaching, has been investigated and improved, especially in and for the common schools, among which the village schools can not have either a full sway nor the best men; whilst, on the other hand, teaching in the higher institutions, either based on the indelible source of formal instruction, the classics, as in the gymnasia, or destined to the acquisition of real and positive knowledge, neither needed the same degree of efforts in this respect, nor even admitted such essential changes as the common school teaching has passed through. The normal schools have been, in modern times, the foci of pedagogical improvement, whereas the universities, where the rest of the teachers are educated, with all their seminaries and professors of pedagogy, offer more of literal and scientific than of pedagogical education. All this I have said in appreciation of the pedagogical progress in common schools and of the normal schools, not to the disparagement of our excellent institutions of a higher grade; and, it may be remembered, that nearly all teachers of the normal schools, as well as most of the leaders in our pedagogical literature are graduates of the gymnasia and universities.

8. THE NORMAL SCHOOLS, or teachers' seminaries. Of these, two are in *Dresden*, and one each in *Plauen*, *Grimma*, *Annaberg*, *Bautzen*, *Nossen* instead of *Freiberg*, in all seven. They are now all internates or boarding schools, in former times partly day schools. For admission, once a year, such a preparation is needed as is not required in a common burgher school; hence "Pro-seminaries" of a half private character, are generally established in connection with the normal school. The course comprises four years. Besides religion, music is an essential branch, as it is needed by a country teacher who is attached to a church, as most are, and all wish to be, since he leads the choir, plays on the organ, etc. The teacher-pupils rise at five; in winter at half past five; and go to

bed at half past nine or ten. The lesson or study hours are, 5-6, 11-1, (12-2,) and two hours in the evening; once a week a common walk with one of the teachers. Permission to go out is very rarely given, and only in those hours, but never after supper. The pupils of the two lower classes are not permitted to give private lessons, and the others but exceptionally, and in case of great ability and dignity. Prayer in the morning and evening, particularly so on Monday morning, in presence of all teachers and pupils, including the children of the school of practice.

Branches of instruction: 1, religion, in connection with 2, catechetics; 3, German; 4, geography and history; 5, natural philosophy and history; 6, arithmetic; 7, elements of geometry; 8, pedagogy; 9, penmanship; 10, drawing; 11, gymnastics; 12, music. But of the branches taught until 1857, no time is henceforth to be allotted to Latin and logic; no particular time to psychology, common school knowledge, and methodics; which are to be connected with pedagogy and practiced in the *seminarschule* or school of practice. The teachers of the normal school, obliged to twenty-six hour lessons a week, are, at the same time, teachers of the school of practice, (in two or three classes, with no more than forty or fifty in each class,) together with the pupils of the two upper classes exclusively, and in presence of a teacher.

Vacations: three weeks in summer, in dog-days; and one week at the three great festivals, (Easter, Whitsuntide, Christmas.) The study hours of the evening must be devoted to a *review* of the day's lessons; those of Saturday to a review of the week's lessons; and the teachers have to review with the pupils, not only at the close of any convenient section, but regularly at the end of every month.

A normal school for *female* teachers has been lately established in Callenberg, (by the munificence of the prince of Schoenburg, the same who has founded before the female normal school in Droissig, in the Prussian province of Saxony,) and admits young ladies of seventeen to twenty-five years of age. The length of the course is not yet fixed. Families and principals of private schools are allowed by government to employ the graduates of that school: the former, (the families,) for educating their children until the tenth year of age, without distinction of sex, in all branches; but from the 10th year, only for their *girls*, in all branches, excluding religion. The latter, (private schools,) may employ them only for teaching their *female* pupils in the lower and middle class, and in the latter class with the exception of religion. Whether and to what extent they may be employed in public schools, (i e., either in girl schools, or in elementary classes of mixed schools,) will be later determined by our government, after some more observation and experience. I may add here, that, in some districts of Prussia the government has been compelled, by want of teachers, to establish normal courses of *one* year, instead of the usual three.

4. REAL SCHOOLS, (higher burgher schools.) These are of a relatively new date. Formerly, all boys of the middle classes in towns,

with the means needed for a better education, were sent to the old Latin schools; more recently to the lower gymnasium, (Quarta and Tertia, with the progymnasium or Sexta and Quinta,) and were equally instructed with such boys as had to acquire a classical education for professional studies in the university. Peace and the increase of wealth, together with the increased demand for an education in modern languages and mathematics, called forth the frequent establishment of these schools, (corresponding to the English "high schools.") Where an actual real school was not yet possible, parallel classes were joined to the gymnasia. In these the first real class corresponds to the second class in the gymnasium. Instead of Latin and Greek, other branches are more particularly taught,—some in common.

Even in Saxony, the real schools are of a somewhat different stamp and standing; but all have the same object, of giving a higher education to such as do not want a classical education. In some modern languages, i.e., French and English, prevail more than in others; but German, mathematical and natural knowledge, history, geography, and drawing, are essential branches in all. These schools have no systematical connection with the burgher schools, as has, *e. g.*, the Free Academy in New York. They admit boys of all ages and towns, if they pass the examination, which requires a good elementary education. But this point has been often reached by boys of good family, with the help of private tuition, at the eleventh year, as well as by others at the fourteenth. This was, at least, the case hitherto, and a boy destined for a higher education is expected to be early in advance of his common school brethren of the same age. For this purpose schools of a higher aim have generally preparatory classes, so that many gymnasiums are frequented even by boys of eight years in a fifth or sixth class, whilst the gymnasium contains properly but four classes.

The real school in Leipzig is divided into four classes, the last of which comprises boys of eleven to fourteen years. Other real schools go further down, and thus serve as common schools. The complete Prussian real schools have six classes, even with a two years' course in the highest. There has been, as yet, much experimenting with this sort of schools, or, rather, in every state, province, or town, that organization has been adopted which seemed best according to the views of the chief founder, or best adapted to the wants of the inhabitants, or, under unfavorable circumstances, the only practicable one. In Prussia the Latin has been retained, (in some schools only in the lower classes;) in other states, (Saxony,) it is entirely superseded by French and English; in Austria neither is Latin taught, nor is French or English obligatory; and mathematical, technical, (drawing,) and natural knowledge are the chief points.

The real schools are, generally, a part of the burgher school system in the towns, and hence supported by the school money paid by the pupils, and if that does not cover the expenses, by the municipal council. Only

when they are a collateral branch of a royal gymnasium, do they stand immediately under the government.

The "*höhere tochtersschulen*," (higher girls' schools,) are co-ordinate to the real schools, though rather rare as yet, and established only by wealthy municipalities or by private enterprise.

There is another class of schools which come very near the real schools, though they have a more professional denomination. I mean the *commercial schools, handelschulen*. In all of them modern languages, with letter writing, arithmetic, book keeping, laws of exchange, etc., are the chief branches. The two largest are in Leipzig and Dresden, partly preparatory, aiming at the same higher education for which the real schools are founded, and partly for mercantile apprentices, who are, by the recent resolution of the corporation of merchants (in Dresden, etc.,) which founded and supports the school, obliged to attend, during their apprenticeship, (generally four years,) for several hours a day. Smaller towns, e. g., Zwickau, Grimma, etc., follow the example, and have imposed the same obligation. Many or most boys of the real school, e. g., in Leipzig, are preparing, too, for a mercantile pursuit.

5. INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, *gewerbschulen*. There are technical institutions, preparing for mechanical and chemical trades, commonly with the addition of a school for journeymen masons, and carpenters, architectural,) and also for journeymen, i e., such as have finished their apprenticeship in other trades, (millers, dyers, tanners, etc.) The lower classes are attended also by such as want a real education of a more general kind, (German, French, drawing, mathematical and natural science.)

We have had such schools in the industrial districts of Saxony, (Chemnitz, Plauen, Zittau,) but by far the best, and now, I hear, the only one, in the first named greatest industrial town of Saxony, (for machine building, cotton weaving, dyeing, hosiery, etc.,) which, on this account, has no real school. Drawing, chemistry, and machine building, are the chief branches, with an agricultural department. The school has two collateral courses, of which the one is for machinists, and has one class more than the other, which is for chemistry, (agriculturalists,) etc.*

The industrial schools of Prussia have a lower standing and somewhat different organization: the real schools of Austria, with their technical character, are somewhat similar.

It must be mentioned in this place, that our *Sunday Schools*, established in most towns, are for apprentices and journeymen, and to afford a more practical education. Hence they are essentially drawing schools.

Besides, we have, in the mountainous districts about Chemnitz, Annaberg, etc., a considerable number of schools for *lace making*, lately improved and increased by government. But I am not aware that many industrial schools of this kind, though they abound in Belgium, do exist in Saxony for any other manufacture. *Freiberg* has a *sewing school*, with one hundred and twenty girls, from the seventh year upward; yearly income four hundred thalers. And a straw working school, with one hun-

* For the plan of lessons see American Journal of Education, Vol. IV., No. 10, p. 252.

dred and eighty children from the fifth year of age, (two-thirds boys,) who earn five or six groschen a week,—both supported by the "*Frauenterein*," ("female association.")

Improvement in agricultural concerns is cared for by economical associations of the various districts, (exhibitions, etc.,) which I should not mention here, if they had not made a beginning in influencing the schools by establishing, in connection with some village schools, additional lessons in natural knowledge, granting physical apparatus, etc.

Arboriculture and horticulture have been taught hitherto in many village schools, and should be in all.

6. THE POLYTECHNICAL SCHOOL. Besides the polytechnic school, properly so called, (for engineering of all sorts and chemistry,) it comprises an architectural school, (*baugewerkschule*,) and a school for drawing and clay modeling, (*zeichnen und thonmodelliren*.) The lessons of the last division are exclusively devoted to these branches; in two sections, with two teachers, (from eight to twelve and two to six;) those of the architectural school in three classes, (*repetenten*, higher and lower,) comprise:—ornamental and architectural drawing, architecture, doctrine of projection, perspective, machinery, mathematics, German, natural philosophy, carpentry, masonry, and engraving, (lessons from eight to twelve and two to four, of two hours each,) with seven teachers.

The proper school consists of a lower, (three classes,) and a higher division, (two classes,) the latter of which is the highest technical academy in Saxony, with twenty-one teachers. In the lower division (from eight to twelve and two to six; with from seven to eight in the morning, on most days, for French and English.) The studies are German, French, English, algebra, stereometry, analytical geometry, experimental physics, mechanics, mineralogy, projecting, theoretical and technical chemistry, engraving, (*steinschnitt*,) mechanical technology, perspective, general architecture, ornamental and architectural drawing. In the afternoons of most days, surveying, projecting of parts of machines, and chemical exercises in the laboratory.

In the higher division: (from eight to twelve and from two to six; and on four days also from twelve to one for English;) the studies are higher mathematics, physics, practical economy, book keeping, English; projecting of machines, mechanical technology, mechanics, astronomy, geodesy, building of bridges, etc.; geognosy, drawing, chemical exercises. There are, at present, in the higher division about twenty students; in the lower about sixty. The architectural school has eighty-three, and the drawing school thirty-one pupils.

7. THE MINING ACADEMY in Freiberg, (founded November 13th 1765,) with fifty students from Saxony, fifty more from the other German states, and twenty-seven from all parts of the world, viz., seven from England, seven from the United States, two from Chili, one from Mexico, one from New Granada, one from Cordova in South America, one from Smyrna, one from Florence, one from France, one from Belgium, one from Servia, one from Moscow, one from Warsaw, one from Lemberg,—one hundred

and twenty-seven in all, more than ever before,—with ten professors, (Breithaupt, Schecner, Plattner, Cotta, junior, etc.)

8. THE ACADEMY FOR AGRICULTURE AND FOREST concerns in Tharand near Dresden, a well known school of good reputation, (Cotta,) with about one hundred students of various nations.

9. THE ACADEMY OF ARTS in Dresden, (Schnorr, Bendemann, Rietschel.)

10. THE MUSICAL OBSERVATORY in Leipzig, (Mendelssohn.)

11. THE SURGICAL ACADEMY in Dresden, training surgeons for the army, and "*medicinae practicos*;" but not doctors of medicine. These must have studied their medical (and surgical) course in the university.

12. THE ARCHITECTURAL SCHOOLS, in connection with the polytechnical school in Dresden, and with the industrial school in Chemnitz.

II. LEARNED, OR SUPERIOR SCHOOLS.

THE gymnasia, with the university at their head, are the seminaries of classical and philosophical learning for all such as wish to be clergymen, physicians, state officers, judges, and teachers of higher grade. For the course in the gymnasia may be substituted private education; but this is a rare case, since the unavoidable examination in one of them for entering the university, (the *abiturienten-prufung* or *maturitats-prufung*,) makes it more than desirable to have gone through all, or, at least, the higher classes of the gymnasium. A final attendance at least, on the university of Leipzig is obligatory on every Saxon student, with papers from any other German university, which has been attended, certifying such attendance. No one is forced to the examination, or to leave the university, hence we have had some rare specimens of the "old" and the "oldest" student in Germany. Foreigners and others without any professional pretension in Saxony, may be more easily matriculated, and are always allowed to attend the lectures.

Now let us look more closely at these institutions.

The *gymnasia* of Saxony are eleven;—two in Dresden, two in Leipzig, one each in Plauen, Freiberg, Zwickau, Bautzen, Zittau, and two royal boarding colleges or "*Fürstenschulen*," viz., in Meissen, (Misnia,) and Grimma. The latter are the oldest, together with "*Schulpforta*" near Naumburg, (since 1815, a Prussian city) are of old celebrity. They were founded at the time of the Reformation, in secularized cloisters, and have remained until this time, boarding schools of about the same character. Their students are most of them free scholars from all parts of Saxony, according to a strict distribution of districts and towns. Such scholars cost the institution about a hundred thalers each, yearly. The expenses of the others are, of course, two or three times that sum. The chief teachers of these schools have the title of professor. After that pattern the other gymnasia, (all open day schools,) were organized out of the old Latin schools. Most of them, i e., all those which pressed too heavily on the municipal funds of the respective towns, by an increase and better pay of the teachers, have lately become governmental schools, yet without differing from their richer municipal sisters in Dresden and Leipzig. Of these gymnasia there are two; the Cross-school at Dresden, and the Thomas-school in Leipzig, which have a large number of free scholars

boarding in the school, who form the choir of the Cross-church and St. Thomas church, and attend all ceremonies connected with it, as public funerals, etc. All others pay for their attendance, in progression, from sixteen to twenty-four thalers a year. The Vitzthum gymnasium in Dresden is a private foundation, and free for all boys of the Vitzthum family, and, for as many other poor boys, who are admitted by the administrator of the foundation, a Count Vitzthum. They are all instructed, fed, and clothed. Being, naturally, for a limited number of scholars, it could not well exist of itself, though the capital had lain two hundred years, and thus it came into life through Blochman, in 1829, with whose private institution it was conjoined in 1829.*

I have mentioned before that a gymnasium contains properly but *four* classes, which are, however, subdivided in Upper and Lower Prima, (the first and highest,) etc., which are combined only in several scientific subjects, or, sometimes, not at all, so that a gymnasiast has, in fact, to go through eight classes. To those four chief classes, in many places, preparatory classes are added, with or without the name of progymnasium; hence we meet, very often, with a Quinta and Sexta, (sometimes again subdivided,) in which boys are found from nine to thirteen years. There is no regular year's course in the public gymnasia; a "translocation" takes place at Easter and Michaelmas, but only the higher forms, or the better portion of the class, is transferred. The average time for passing through the four classes of the gymnasium, is six years: but since feeble scholars have, with this kind of translocation, little chance even of mastering all the studies to this point, in many schools the entrance of the upper gymnasium, (i.e., of lower Secunda,) is made more or less decidedly a stumbling-stone for such as are considered not talented enough for studying, as it is generally called, *i. e.*, for finishing their classical course and studying a profession in the university. Those who have come as far as Prima, will always pass successfully their final examination, when admitted to it. That is, the private examination; for the public examination of the various classes at Easter is rather an exhibition,—at least I know of no case to the contrary; though the certificate then given, bears testimony to the degree of the scholar's maturity, viz., *satis*, (3.) *omnino*, (2.) or *imprimis dignus*, (1.) There is no such distinction in Prussia; the certificate only saying, "mature."

Each class has one chief teacher, called the "Ordinarius" of that class, who gives most lessons in it. However, it is not confined to him, since, perhaps, besides one or two more teachers even in classics, it often studies mathematics, religion, French, and also history, with as many different teachers.*

* It may be proper to mention here, that a second public gymnasium was intended for Dresden, by the municipal council, by making the well known private gymnasium of Dr. Krause a public concern. But since his pupils are prepared just in the same way, so far that on leaving Prima, (class first) they pass their examination successfully elsewhere, (in Saxony or Prussia,) he refused the honor, because he did not wish to give up his right of appointing his own teachers.

† Some weeks ago, a number of citizens of the university town of Marburg in Hesse Cassel, petitioned government to have but twenty-four lessons, (one hour each,) a week pre-

The gymnasia are, as is well known, pre-eminently classical schools, two-thirds of the thirty lessons being devoted to Latin and Greek. Formerly the classics were explained in Latin in Prima and Secunda, but the custom of speaking Latin is gradually dying out; yet writing Latin in translating and free compositions, is still, and will be, for a long time to come, a chief point. The writing of Greek is confined to translating from the German, and, chiefly used for impressing, more decidedly the manifold niceties and intricacies of Greek grammar. Since the time which called forth the organization of real schools, a continual warfare has been going on between classical and "real" education; and, in the year 1848, (some years before that time an oppositional association, the "gymnasial verein" in Dresden, had been founded and most skillfully conducted by Kochly, then teacher of the gymnasium in Dresden, and, since 1849, professor of classical literature in Zurich,) when all the elements of the opposition came to an outbreak and gained the victory, and the gymnasia seemed to be on the eve of giving up their old classical character and fame. Though, however, many improvements were made in consequence, especially in allowing more space to mathematics, and in sweeping off a good deal of philological dust by a more cursory and less stationary method of reading, still the gymnasia remained chiefly devoted to classical learning. It has become the general opinion, that the founding of the real schools places the gymnasia in a proper and fully justified position, since they serve no longer as high schools for all, and should be no longer exposed to the enmity of those who want another education for their children, because the latter have now but to choose between a real school, a commercial school, or an industrial school.

To give an idea of the number of persons connected with a gymnasium, I take the first report at hand of the gymnasium in *Plauen*.

I find there:

(a.) Schul commission, (school committee;) including (1,) the superintendent (of churches and schools in the diocese) of Plauen; (2,) a city counselor, (lawyer;) (3,) another city counselor, (a bookseller;) (4,) an attorney.

(b.) Teachers:

(1,) the rector; (2,) the conrector, (subrector, prorector;) (3,) the collega III., called Tertius; (4,) collega IV., called Quartus; (5,) collega V., or Quintus; (6,) the mathematicus; (7,) the teacher of religion. (All these teachers are called professors in Meissen, in Grimma, and in all gymnasia of Southern Germany;) (8,) the teacher of French; (9,) the Collaborator or Adjunctus. In schools with many pupils or more classes the number of Adjuncti is increased ad libitum.* The number of students varies from one hundred and twenty to three hundred.

scribed in the gymnasia, with only four prescribed (not optional) studies, viz., Latin, Greek, history. (with geography,) and mathematics, which should be the only subjects of examination; further, that all these branches should be taught in the lower classes by the "Ordinaries" of each class, and likewise in the higher classes, but these, with the exception of mathematics; finally, that opportunity should be afforded to learn the modern languages, but at the option of the parents.

* The gymnasium in Stuttgart, (Wurtemberg,) with five hundred pupils, has ten classes

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE SAXON PRINCIPALITIES.

HISTORICAL.

THE emperor Henry I erected, in 930, on the Elbe, the stronghold of Meissen, to protect the eastern frontier of Germany against the inroads on the part of the neighboring Slavonic tribes. He annexed a territory to that fortress, appointed a margrave to represent him there, and in this way the margraviate of Meissen came into existence. In 1046, the emperor Henry III invested with the margraviate the earl Dedo II, of Wettin, who is the ancestor of the present reigning houses in the kingdom, as well as in the grand-duchy and duchies of Saxony. The powerful duchy of Saxony (the present Hanover, Westphalia, etc.,) was dismembered in 1179, when duke Henry the Lion was outlawed on account of his felony, and the duke Bernard, of Ascania, invested with the north-eastern part and the electoral privileges. In 1422 the electoral line of the Ascania house became extinct, and the emperor Sigismund now conferred that part of the ancient duchy of Saxony upon the margrave Frederic of Meissen, who assumed the title of elector of Saxony. He was followed in 1428 by his son Frederic II, the Meck, who died in 1464, leaving behind two sons, Ernest and Albert. Ernest succeeded his father as elector, and resided in Wittenberg; he ceded the ancient margraviate of Meissen (comprising also Dresden and Leipzig, and part of Thuringia,) to his younger brother Albert, who took his residence in Dresden. Ernest's grandson, John Frederic, surnamed the Generous, having taken up arms against the emperor, and for this reason been deposed in 1547, Albert's grandson, Maurice, was invested with the electorate, who was at the same time obliged to cede to the deposed elector and his descendants the districts of Weimar, Jena, Eisenach, Gotha, etc., to which, in 1554, was added that of Altenburg. In this way the Saxon grand-duchy and duchies, ruled by the descendants of Ernest and of John Frederic, respectively, came into existence.

All these duchies may be considered as members of one body, as well geographically (though partly disconnected) as nationally and politically, (in spite of differences in interests and institutions.) The same view may be taken of their educational establishments. The schools in all these countries were originally organized on the same plan, and both elementary and higher instruction were based on similar principles. This was not only the natural result of a similar development of public and

private life under governments connected by family ties, but also of historic incidents and direct official interference. The two causes which mainly produced this result were: the ecclesiastical reformation in the 16th century, and the school edict of Ernest the Pious in the second half of the 17th century

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The schools in the Saxon duchies, (except a few whose existence can be traced back to the middle ages,) originated in the great Church reformation, which influenced the political and social life of the people most decidedly, and which was carried through in Thuringia and the Saxon countries on the same principles, with the same objects in view, by the same means, and by the same men. The Reformation was introduced in the county of Henneberg, and church as well as school was organized in the same manner, though that district was at that time still independent; and only became later a part of the Saxon duchies in consequence of family treaties.

More important for the homogeneous organization of the schools in Thuringia, was, however, the energetic activity of duke Ernest the Pious, the main features of whose plans will be found in the following sketch of the development of the schools in the duchy of Gotha. But it should be borne in mind, that Ernest's decrees and institutions extended their direct influence over more than two-thirds of the present Saxon duchies and grand-duchies, particularly over Meiningen, Coburg, Gotha, and Altenburg; and that they indirectly influenced the remaining portion, viz., the duchy of Weimar-Eisenach, whose government adopted them as models for their own school-legislature.

Recently a marked progression in the organization and tendencies of the public school has become visible, yielding not only to the demands of modern pedagogy in regard to the objects and methods of teaching, but also giving the school a greater independence of the church. The revised common school law of Saxe-Gotha, ordained July 1, 1868, not only asserts and enforces the obligations of parents, guardians and tutors to see that the children under their care are not left without the instruction given in common schools, the minimum which every adult citizen must have, but provides wisely and effectually for the establishment, instruction, supervision, and support of these schools in every neighborhood.

The four Saxon Duchies, with a population of 764,372 on an area of 3,679 square miles, had in 1864—

1,365 Primary schools, with 123,657 pupils, under 1,651 teachers.

27 Secondary schools, with 6,324 scholars, under 295 professors.

1 University, with 67 professors, and 416 students in the four faculties, viz., 131 in the clergy, 81 in law, 69 in medicine, and 135 in philosophy.

34 Special schools, viz., 7 elementary teachers' seminaries, and 1 class in university for secondary teachers; 6 schools of agriculture; 1 of forestry; 2 of architecture; 1 of pharmacy; 4 of trades; 1 of music; 2 of commerce; 1 for the blind; 2 for deaf-mutes; 7 orphan asylums; 10 kindergärten and infant schools; and a large number of private schools for girls.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SAXE-ALTENBURG.

HISTORY—TERRITORY—POPULATION.

ALTENBURG was ceded to the deposed elector John Frederic, by Maurice, in 1554. Duke Ernest the Pious inherited it in 1672, and when his seven sons divided the dominions, the eldest, duke Frederic of Gotha, obtained Altenburg. Gotha and Altenburg were united from 1680 to 1825. By the arrangements agreed upon in 1826, on the part of the three reigning Saxon dukes, the duke Frederic of Hildburghausen ceded his duchy to Saxe-Meiningen, and acquired instead of it the wealthy duchy of Altenburg. He died in 1834; his son and successor, Joseph, abdicated in 1848 in favor of his brother, duke George, who died in 1853. The present reigning duke is Ernest I, the son of the latter.

The executive authority is divided into three departments: the ministry of the Ducal House, the ministry of the Interior and of Justice, the ministry of Finance. Legislation is vested in a Chamber composed of 24 representatives, 8 of which are chosen by the nobility, 8 by the inhabitants of towns, and 8 by those of rural districts. The Chamber meets every three years, and the deputies are elected for two sessions.

With an area of 509 English square miles, the duchy had 137,883 inhabitants in 1861, who are all Protestants, except about 300 Roman Catholics.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION.

A great interest in education has always been shown; and the regulation of 1705 says "that little children should be taught, before they are sent to any school," and "yet their little weak heads should not be overburdened and thus tired out and enfeebled." From the same interest originated recently—to speak first of purely educational establishments—the institute to guard little children, called "the Amelia institute," in Altenburg, founded on Pestalozzi's principles in 1835, by duchess Amelia, born duchess of Würtemberg, for eighty poor children of three to six years old, maintained by voluntary contributions, especially of the ducal family, the children receiving also food free; another institute of that kind in Kahla, (where the children have to pay 5 pfennigs a day for food,) and a Kindergarten for about 30 children of the higher classes of society; lastly, the Kindergarten in Ronneberg, (15 children,) and Altenburg, (50 children, 12 thalers a year, each.) Similar to the former are the industrial schools for children of poor parents, the

object being to accustom the children to regular labor and to earn some money. There is one in Altenburg for 100 boys, (maintained by legacies,) who work every afternoon three hours, and may earn 2 pfennigs an hour, and another one for 100 girls, under the protection of duchess Agnes; in Orlamünde are two schools of this class for boys and girls, maintained by the town council; in Kahla one for 40 girls, maintained by the ladies' association; in Roda one during the Winter for girls, by a similar association; in Ronneburg one for boys and girls by the town council. The asylum, "George and Mary house," is a kind of agricultural colony, on a piece of ground near Altenburg presented by duke George and his duchess Maria; it was opened in 1855; the ladies of the "Maria association" have charged themselves to provide for the wants of the pupils; the results have been satisfactory so far.

All the schools are under the superintendence of the consistory, consisting of a chairman, three ecclesiastic, and two secular counselors. The former visit, once in every four years, every ephorality. The minister is the local inspector in the country, the ephor in a town; they give a detailed report every year.

In the 463 villages, with 92,173 inhabitants, there are 166 common schools, with 14,857 children of from 6 to 14 years of age. They receive instruction in: Religion, (sacred history, the Bible, Luther's catechism and Bible verses, hymns;) German language, (reading, writing, declamation, composition;) arithmetic, (the four fundamental operations in whole numbers and fractions; simple rule of three;) geography, (topography of the district, of the country, of Germany, description of the earth, sacred geography;) history, (of the district, of the country, of Germany, and of the Reformation;) natural history; singing, (hymns, popular songs;) drawing, (house, and field utensils, &c.) The text-books are, the Bible, and in many schools, Rauschenbusch's sacred history; the Altenburg country catechism, with Bible verses, by Dr. Von Brocke, (307 verses in connection with the different sections of the catechism;) abridged catechism; hymn-book, and a collection of 68 excellent lyrical poems, called Pearls from the Evangelical Treasury of Poems, by Braune; Runkwitz's Reader, for the common schools in the duchy of Altenburg, 1866, with an appendix containing "Rudiments of German instruction in common schools," 1788, also models for letters, and composition of business transactions and 16 popular songs; Runkwitz's "The Children's Treasure," for school and house; first reader, (analytic synthetic speller, with pictures to 31 normal words, and "Three words to the Teacher"—a pedagogy in brief;) second reader, (with pictures,) 1867; Berthelt; Jäckel; Petermann; Thomas's pictures from life, vol. i, an elementary reading and writing book, with "elementary instruction on Jacotot's principles; Döring's Altenburg choir melodies in letters, very peculiar and practical.

In the ten towns, with 49,402 inhabitants, there are 6,941 school children. Altenburg (with 18,398 inhabitants) has 8 burgher-schools, in the

first class school of which, Latin, (Cæs., b. gall.,) French, (Charles XII,) and English, (six tales of Shakspeare,) are taught; (tuition fee in first school, 9 to 15 thalers; in the second, four thalers; in the third, 2 thalers;) a second and third burgher school for girls, some private schools, and the Caroline school, a State institute for girls. The burgher-schools in the other towns are similarly organized, yet without the three class system; some of them have also select classes for Latin and French.

The law of July 16th, 1862, prescribes three classes of salaries of the teachers of common schools in the country, viz., 260, 280, and 200 thalers as minima, to which must be added some perquisites. The tuition fee, not less than 1 thaler a year, and not more than 2 thalers, is collected by the district. The teachers in towns have free lodging, or an equivalent in money, and a salary of 200 thalers, when they receive their appointment, 250 after 12 years, 300 after 25 years of service. The rectors' salaries reach 600 thalers. The general school-fund allows assistance to the districts which can not afford to pay the minimum salary, and also to needy teachers, and to such as have done long and distinguished service. The salaries, as prescribed by the law, are nearly every where raised, in some places, even more. The pensions of the *emeriti* amount to one-half, in some cases two-thirds of their salaries.

The teachers have joined the general widows' fund of the officers of State since 1834; the assessment is 3 per cent. of the salary; the pension of the widow or children till they have reached their 21st year, amounts to 25 per cent. of the salary. The widows and orphans of teachers receive additional assistance from the funds invested for that purpose by Superintendent Braune, originally formed from the profits of a book-publishing business, and then increased by voluntary contributions. A relief association takes care of unmarried orphaned daughters of teachers, partly by regular contributions of the members, who are teachers, partly by rich charitable contributions. The family of every teacher receives, immediately after his death about, 40 thalers from a burial fund.

The Teachers' Seminary in Altenburg has existed since 1787. The seminary is, according to the regulations of Sept. 3d, 1858, under the direct control of the consistory; the course lasts three years; instruction is free, so are lodging, light, fuel, use of the apparatus and library, medical treatment and medicine; in the second or third year, 25 thalers is paid to each pupil, as an assistance to pay their board. Worthy pupils are allowed to give private lessons. Horticulture and gymnastics are taught, besides the usual branches of instruction. The science of teaching includes: Elements of anthropology, physiology, and pedagogy, from a Christian point of view, outlines of the history of Christian education, with biographical sketches, and extracts of the laws for church and school. The principal must give 18, and each of the four teachers 28 lessons a week. Graduation entitles to provisional employment; a second examination, two years later, decides the qualification for a per-

manent employment. The board of examiners consists of the teachers, the commissioner of the consistory being chairman. Each pupil of the seminary is bound to serve for two years as a teacher wherever the consistory may send him; he who wishes to be excused from this obligation, must refund the 25 thalers a year and other cash expenses incurred in his behalf. The school connected with the seminary admits 100 children, and is in great favor. The regulation of July 16th, 1861, indicates the degree of knowledge which is required of candidates for admission, and which is all that a common school, in the ordinary branches of instruction, can aim at. The way in which they qualify themselves is left to the option of the candidates; they are, however, advised to apply to clergymen and teachers for advice and assistance. Clergymen and teachers who intend to instruct candidates require the permission of the consistory. The number of pupils of the seminary is 82; that of the candidates is fluctuating, (there were 80 in the Summer of 1867.) The beautiful new building, for which the State granted 20,000 thalers, has been occupied since 1861.

The decree of Dec. 6th, 1862, contains the regulations for the examination of head-masters. Theologians who have passed their examination, are qualified by it for a head-mastership; those theologians whose certificates bear the grade three or four, are submitted to the examination for a head-mastership, when they will obtain the eligibility for a rectorate (principalship of a burgher-school.) Permission to be examined is also given to those theologians who have not passed the preliminary examination; also to those who can prove that, though not graduates from a gymnasium, they have devoted themselves, during two years, to such studies at a university as are prescribed for common school teachers. The consistory constitutes the board of examiners, to whom the candidates are required to send answers to one or more scientific questions given them. Then follows the written examination in questions which principally refer to the teaching in the higher class of burgher-schools, and is followed by the practical examination, when the candidate is required to give a trial-lesson in one of the classes of the burgher-school in Altenburg on a prescribed subject. Those candidates who have not passed the examination in theology, are allowed to give lessons in religion, only when their examination for the head-mastership, at their own request, included the knowledge of the church doctrine.

The holydays last (with a few local modifications) from Saturday before Palmarum to Thursday after Easter; from Saturday before Whitsuntide to Wednesday after; from Christmas eve to the Saturday before the 7th of January; harvest vacation in town schools, four weeks; in country schools, six weeks, including two weeks half holydays, i. e. school is kept in the morning, from 6 to 8 for the first class, and from 8 to 10 for the second class. These holydays may be given in the time of potato harvest, or, (in the forest,) of the berry picking, or be eight to fourteen days extended, according to the discretion of the superintendent. Fur-

thur, at Kirmes, four days ; Carnival, two days ; Gregorius festivity, one to two days. The day preceding a church holyday is a half holyday.

A regulation for the teachers was issued, Oct. 11th, 1825, in the expectation that it might facilitate the necessary coöperation of ministers and teachers to attain this important object, viz., a Christian, religious, and moral education of the people by church and school.

The supplementary (*Fortbildungs*) schools, liberally assisted by the State, are open to every youth who has partaken of the first communion. The pupils must pay a contribution to the library fund on being admitted, and receive in return many instruments, as mathematical boxes, and on leaving, generally a valuable book. The school in Altenburg was founded in 1825. Fourteen teachers give, every week, 80 lessons, in 4 class-rooms, in : Writing, arithmetic, German language, (oral and written,) history, geography, natural sciences, geometry, modeling, free hand drawing, geometrical drawing. The French language has been dropped. The scientific instruction is given by five teachers on the first four days of the week from 5, P. M., 13 lessons in 8 classes ; instruction in drawing and modeling during the daytime, mostly on Sunday, before and after church service in the morning. From its foundation till June, 1868, there have been 2,234 pupils, some of them having attended lessons for 5 years. Vide "Contributions from the Osterland," in which the late counselor Lange used to write about that school, whose directing spirit he had been for thirty-six years. Under the same direction was the agricultural Winter school ; 2 classes ; 12½ lessons a week in history, geography, arithmetic, orthography, composition, book-keeping, agricultural chemistry, botany, zoölogy, geometry, surveying, and leveling ; tuition fee, 4 to 7 thalers. There are similar institutes in the eight towns of the duchy, (approaching nearest to the Altenburg school is that in Ronneburg, then follows Kahla, where also stenography and French are taught, then Eisenberg,) and others in villages, where there are at least Sunday-schools.

Private-schools.—Schools for children of the educated classes are : The "family-school" in Altenburg, established by an association of several families, animated by the principle that there should be in one class but a moderate number of girls, of nearly equal attainments, (51 girls, in 4 classes, with 7 teachers.) Further, Döll's private girls'-school and educational institute, (51 boarders, partly foreigners, 55 day-scholars, 4 classes, and a Selecta, 8 male and 8 female teachers.) The Carolinum may also be called a private-school, named after the duchess Caroline, founded (1810) by donations of the duke and by other contributions and presents. It is, however, essentially a State school, (4 classes and Selecta, with 20, 25, 20, 18, 5 female pupils respectively ; tuition fee, 16 to 34 thalers ; besides the ordinary branches, natural sciences, French, English, drawing, and needlework, are taught.) There are, besides, a number of private-schools for boys, for girls, or for both, in the capital, and in other towns. There are two boarding-schools of high rank for

boys and young men, whose founders were educated in the "school on the forest-mountain," the institute of Fröbel-Baropsch in Keilhau, near Rudolstadt, viz., Matthiä's Institute on the Frauenfels, (lady's rock,) in Altenburg, (10 teachers, including principal, 50 boarders, 80 day-scholars, in 7 classes, 3 of which correspond to classes of the gymnasium and real-school,) and the recently established Institute of Dr. Schaffner in Gumperda, near Kahla, (board and tuition, 190 thalers.) There is also the mercantile union established in Altenburg, in 1865, a commercial school, 8 classes, 24 hours a week; German, French, English, penmanship, mercantile arithmetic, book-keeping, clerkship, knowledge of natural products, mercantile geography, history of commerce; apprentices of members pay 1 thaler admission fee, 20 thalers tuition fee; others pay 2 and 24 thalers respectively.

Of classical schools the duchy has (1,) the lyceum at Eisenburg, changed in 1688, by duke Christian, from a *schola trivialis* into a *schola provincialis*; since 1864 a State school, with 4 classes and 134 pupils, and just now about to be changed into a progymnasium; (2,) the Frederic gymnasium in Altenburg, originally the Bartholomy school, founded (1523) as a Latin school, made a gymnasium in 1713, a State school in 1837, has 5 classes, 12 teachers, and 189 pupils, and is one of the most flourishing gymnasia of the Saxon countries.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA.

HISTORY—GOVERNMENT—TERRITORY—POPULATION.

WHEN the seven sons of Ernest the Pious divided the inherited dominions, duke Albert acquired Coburg, and the youngest son, John Ernest, became possessed of Saalfeld, to which, in 1699, when the line of Albert became extinct, the principal part of Coburg was annexed. John Ernest died in 1729, and was succeeded by his son Francis Josias, who in 1745 transferred his residence from Saalfeld to Coburg, and assumed the title of duke of Coburg-Saalfeld. The duke Ernest, (1806–1844,) having been in the active military service of Prussia, was deprived of his duchy by order of Napoleon, who, however, subsequently restored it to him in 1807. He acquired, in 1826, from the division after the death of Frederic IV, (see Saxe-Meiningen,) the duchy of Gotha. The present (1868) duke is Ernest II, who succeeded his father in 1844, the brother of the late Prince Albert, consort of the British queen.

The fundamental law of the duchy was proclaimed in 1852, and vests the crown in duke Ernest II, and his descendants, or these failing, in the children of his brother, except the sovereign or heir-apparent of England. The legislative authority is vested in two separate assemblies, one for the province of Coburg and the other for the province of Gotha; the former consists of eleven, the latter of nineteen members, chosen every four years, in as many electoral districts, by the direct vote of all the inhabitants. Every second year the two diets unite in one Chamber, to which Coburg sends seven, and Gotha fourteen members, called the United Parliament, which meets alternately at Coburg and Gotha.

The population of the duchy was 159,431 in 1861 (851 Catholics, 1,578 Jews;) the area, 816 English square miles.

DUCHY OF GOTHA.

The schools of the little duchy of Gotha, in the centre of Germany, have long attracted the attention of educators in other countries, because much has been done by a succession of able princes in favor of true popular education.

I. • ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

A. *Their History.*—Our first information of the existence of a school in Gotha bears the date of 1299. This school is mentioned in connection with Margaret church, which existed as early as 1254, and had a rector and a magister. There were two schools in Gotha in 1827, one in con-

nection with Margaret church, the other with Maria church, on the castle hill, which building was pulled down in 1530 by order of elector Frederic I. There is also mentioned, somewhat later, a Latin school, with schoolmaster and assistants, and a girls' school in connection with Margaret church, but this Latin school may be identical with the one already mentioned. There were also schools in the towns of Ohrdruf and Waltershausen at that early period. In Ohrdruf there was a school in connection with the chapter-house, and we find in the accounts of the town treasury of Waltershausen in 1496, an entry concerning a schoolmaster, Wendelinus von Elxleben, who received a scanty remuneration and moreover four groschen earnest-money (*Leihkauf*,) every year, and as much again for ringing the bell at St. Martin's eve. It is worthy of remark that the school of Waltershausen had only from twenty-eight to thirty-two scholars in 1526, though there were at that time three hundred and four citizens. Old documents mention, moreover, a school in Tambach and in Hörselgau, in the latter place even a girls' school. All these schools mentioned before the Reformation were certainly not elementary-schools, in our sense of the word; as the documents leave no doubt that they were cathedral-schools or convent-schools, or mediæval high-schools, at which the instruction in Catholic theology and in the Latin language were given by monks or authorized schoolmasters (*Zunftige*,) with their itinerant scholars (*fahrende schuler*.) We can not be astonished at the want of interest which the secular clergy showed; for the ministers in the duchy were—according to Fr. Rudolphi's *Gotha Diplomatica*, l. 162—illiterate mechanics, even at the beginning of the Reformation. For example, the minister of Molschleben was a butcher, the one of Wiegleben a weaver, the one of Warza a cooper, the one of Trugleben a barber's assistant, and so on. School-reform commenced in Gotha, as well as in other countries, with the reform of the Church, yet it is an interesting fact that Dr. Martin Luther directly influenced the reform of the school-system in Gotha. Luther had come to Gotha as early as 1516, in place of Staupitz, on an inspection of the convents of the Augustinians in Thuringia, where his doctrine of the justification by faith found great sympathy with the monks. On his journey to Worms, he preached on April 8th, 1521, in the church of the Augustinians here, and caused such an enthusiasm that—as Myconius tells us in his History of the Reformation (p. 38)—“the devil became so wroth that he tore some tiles off the gable end of the church which looks toward the city wall.”

The immorality of the clergy hastened the Reformation in Gotha. For the exasperated citizens of Gotha, having driven out the disorderly clergy, on Tuesday of Whitsuntide, 1524, the council, the parish, the dean, and the court, entreated duke John, who governed at that time jointly with his brother, elector Frederic the Wise, to declare for the Reformation in the duchy of Gotha. The petition was granted, and Frederic Myconius, Luther's intimate friend, was inaugurated as the first Evangelical minister and superintendent of Gotha, in August, 1524. Luther wrote in the

same year his letter, addressed to the nobility and councilors of German cities,* in which he exhorted them, in his energetic and rough language, to establish Christian schools and to support them. Myconius, Luther's friend, considered it, therefore, one of his principal duties to take interest in the schools of Gotha. He fused all the schools that were in existence into one, established it in the convent of the Augustinians, (1524,) and became thus the founder of the "gymnasium." This task was not an easy one, for, according to Myconius' statement, "schools and studies were utterly despised by the mob, and it would be much easier to find ten ready to storm and destroy a school, than one or two willing to help in building one." In his History of the Reformation, (p. 54,) Myconius states further: "Nobody would believe what an immense amount of labor is required to build a new house with warped and rotten wood. Oh, how long have we been compelled to work against the stream and to fetch every thing from out of the fire. Now, God, help us, that it may be preserved to our posterity," &c.

When Myconius had regulated the town-schools and had put a rector (M. Monnerus) at their head, he turned his attention to the foundation of elementary-schools, inspired by Luther's letter addressed to the ministers (1527.) In this letter, Luther desires "that they should read the catechism to the children and servants every Sunday afternoon at church, and hear them recite." This demand met with no difficulty, in towns. Ministers in the country, however, could not give their attention to the young at that time, having to attend to their duties in the numerous chapels scattered over a wide district. To comply with Luther's desire, it became necessary to make arrangements for a substitute of the minister; and he was found in the minister's servant, his clerk, bell-ringer, or sacristan. The first foundation stone for common schools in Gotha was laid by this decree, that "the clerk, in place of the minister, should diligently and zealously instruct the young in catechism, hymn-singing, and prayer." The erection of the building was greatly promoted by the practical application of the Evangelical principle, that "every Christian should read God's word in the Bible," obliging the clerk to instruct the children on several days of the week in Bible reading, particularly during the winter months. Casimir's church regulations, published February 17, 1626, give us a clear insight into the condition of the schools at that time, as they contain the following instruction: "The sacristan shall be elected by the judges, deacons and elders, with the consent of the minister, from among the parishioners; he shall then be presented to the consistory, who, having subjected him to an examination and found him sufficiently qualified, will confirm his appointment." "Nobody shall be nominated or appointed against the minister's will, considering that they are to live together and to help each other, also considering that a minister has authority over his sacristan." About the duties of the sacristan the church regulations state: "He shall be obliged to assist the minister

* Barnard's Journal, vol. iv. page 429-440.

in all official duties; he shall, moreover, diligently and comprehensively teach the children the catechism and the hymns of Dr. Luther, every Sunday afternoon, and during the week on a stated day; and he shall, having read and recited the articles of the catechism, hear the children recite the same, and institute an examination." In addition to the duty of catechizing, "the custodes or village sacristans shall keep regularly school, in which they shall teach the children reading, writing, and those hymns that are sung in church." "The sacristans are forbidden to practice law, or to take boarders into their houses, or to sell ardent liquors. In return, the parishioners are forbidden to beset the sacristan on the day when he receives his annual donation, (*Leihkauf*), compelling him to spend the greater part of the money in treating them to drinks; this unchristian extortion should be discontinued." "Only when elected for the first time, may the sacristan spend some groschen (not more than six) to treat his parishioners to drinks." The article of the church regulations referring to private occupations of the sacristans, is very singular: "The sacristans having mostly but a small income, and the churches and parishes being mostly too poor to maintain an idler in such office; therefore, the village sacristans, who know any trade, shall have permission to practice it at home and at hours not employed at school, to gain what is necessary for their subsistence; but they are forbidden to work in mansions, or to offer their work for sale, to the prejudice of the masters of such trade." It is clear, from all that has been said, that the sacristans were in a very sad condition, and that a regular common-school system could not well exist. The principal duties of the sacristans were those of servants of the church and of the minister, and their occupation as teachers was quite secondary. The school did not aim to develop the human faculties naturally and harmoniously, but was a mere church-institute, maintained in the service of a certain denomination, and designed to assist in the propagation of the Evangelical worship. All this broke down with the Thirty Years' War! Ministers and teachers fled from the ruins of parsonages and school-houses, deserted their trusts, gave themselves up to the licentiousness of a soldier's life, did the meanest work as day-laborers, or sought their daily bread, like the schoolmaster of Mechterstadt, by begging near the gates.

Duke Ernest the Pious (1640 to 1675) has the merit of having rescued the common schools of Gotha from utter destruction, during the fearful time of the Thirty Years' War, and of having planted a new, vigorous, and religious life on the ruins of the past. He, the pedagogue among the princes and the prince of the pedagogues, is the father of our present common schools. We can not enumerate all he did toward the reëstablishment and advancement of the common-school system in Gotha. A few facts must suffice. Immediately after his solemn entry into Gotha, (October 24th, 1640,) duke Ernest issued a proclamation, addressed to all his subjects, clerical and lay, by which he made known that he would institute an inquiry into the condition of the church and country at the

earliest day possible, in order to ascertain the wants and the deficiencies, and thus to learn by what laws and institutions he might assist his subjects. The school-visitation was ordered by decree of October 18th, 1641, and it was further ordered that the ministers, the servants of schools, and the elders of the parishes should be examined about "certain points in question." It was by these means and by personal inspection, that the duke not only became acquainted with the sad ignorance and the fearful degeneracy of the people, but also obtained the knowledge of the means with which the evil might be healed. To check the progress of ruin, he invited an educator into the country, who had all the qualities required to do the great work of school reform which the duke intended. This man was Andrew Reyher, rector in Schleusingen, (born May 4th, 1601, in Heinrichs, near Suhl.) Reyher was intimately acquainted with the principles of the greatest pedagogues of that time, viz., Ratich and Comenius, and was, as a teacher, himself a representative of his age. The first thing the duke desired him to do was to draw up a *methodus docendi* for the lower classes of the gymnasium, but arranged in such a manner that it might be useful for the whole country. Reyher, whose whole life had been devoted to nothing but "didacticæ,"—as he declared in his letter to the consistory of the duchy—went vigorously to work at once. The duke faithfully assisted. Reyher relates: "His Grace often caused me repeatedly to alter what I had written, until I had at last satisfied him." The result of these combined labors was received in Germany partly with derision, partly with astonishment and enthusiasm. It bears the title: "*School-method*, or special and particular report, stating how, under the protection of the Lord, the boys and girls of villages, and the children belonging to the lower class of the population of towns, of this principality of Gotha can and shall be plainly and successfully taught. Written by the order of his Grace the Prince, and printed in Gotha by Peter Schmieden in the year 1642." This manual of school method, republished with alterations in 1648, 1653, 1662, 1672, and 1685, contained minute regulations about every thing that concerned schools and teachers, school superintendence and government, parents and children. The manual consists of thirteen chapters. *Chapter I, treats of the nature of the schools in general*; of the obligation of the children to attend school, (there was at that time no legal obligation;) of their admission when they had completed their fifth year; of attendance at school in Winter and Summer; of vacations; of the means to obtain the school-books; of a didactic and methodical instruction of the teacher. It is interesting to meet here with the remark that the teacher should pay particular attention to the poor and backward children who do not get on very well in their studies, and further that the teacher himself should, in pronouncing words, very carefully discriminate between different letters which are vulgarly sounded alike. *Chapter II, treats of the instruction in the lowest class.* It is laid down as a rule, that the beginners should learn Bible verses, the Lord's prayer, the arti-

cles of faith, the ten commandments, and morning and evening prayers. The method of teaching the elements of reading is similar to that of Ratich of Kölhen, with which the duke was familiar, Ratich having been instructor to the duke's mother. The manual expects of this class that the children should advance from spelling to reading in less than one year. *Chapter III, treats of the instruction in the intermediate class.* Here, too, we find extravagant demands made upon the children in the lessons in religion, Luther's catechism to be committed to memory, so also a number of psalms, prayers in rhymes, &c.; then follow instructions about reading lessons. Penmanship is to be commenced and practiced; the teacher shall correct what is written, and pay particular attention to orthography. In arithmetic, addition and subtraction shall be taught, and the multiplication table practiced. Hymns are to be learned in the singing lessons. At the close of the chapter, the reading lessons in this class are again emphasized. *Chapter IV, treats of the instruction in the upper class.* The subjects of study are: Religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, &c. Then follow special instructions for composition, and themes for composition are recommended: such as points of doctrine, the art of dying, certain prayers, and the secular sciences, *e. g.*, family life, laws of the country, politics, regulations for marriage, baptism, burial, and dress; prohibition of hard drinking. In regard to orthography, the methodus states: "If there should be any doubt about the proper spelling of a word, either the minister or the reading book, or particularly the Bible, will decide the point in doubt." *Chapter V, treats of the lessons in school-hours.* For every school-hour a lesson is prescribed. Thus: Monday morning, first hour, catechism, then recitation of hymns, then examination about Sunday's sermon, &c. *Chapter VI, treats of the method to teach the catechism understandingly.* The author takes the same view that Luther first advanced in the preface to his smaller catechism, viz., the children should thoroughly learn the catechism by heart, every word; later, (in the upper class,) that shall be explained which has been firmly fixed upon the memory. The minister is expected to assist the teacher once every week, and to give an explanation of parts of the catechism in presence of the teacher. *Chapter VII, treats of the manner in which the sermon is to be remembered and examined.* The children shall assemble in the school-room at the first bell on Sunday morning, and proceed, two abreast, with the preceptor, to church on the second bell. There they shall pray, and write down the sermon, paying attention to (a,) the prefatory remarks; (b,) text and division; (c,) treatment of each point; (d,) the blessed application. *Chapter VIII, treats of natural and other useful sciences, and how to teach them.* This chapter, certainly the most interesting of the whole method, and remarkably similar to the views of Amos Comenius, decides that this branch of instruction shall begin when the children have done their other lessons. Natural science should first be spoken of, and mensuration and surveying shall only be taught to boys. (a,) *Natural science:* the teacher shall

explain the length of an hour by an hourglass or sundial; explain the twelve signs of the Zodiac, the rising and setting of sun and moon. Speaking of shooting stars and ignis fatuus, the teacher shall mention the flying fire, called dragon, condemn all superstitions, and teach "that it is not always the Evil One who plays with natural objects, but that God also does so sometimes." When explaining thunder and lightning, the preceptor shall fire a gun, and demonstrate that the flash is seen first and the report heard later. In geography, he shall show the points of the compass by stating that the altar of the church is always in the East, that hence, when looking at it, West will be found in the rear, South on the right, North on the left of the observer. Having comprehended this, the children should observe the wind, and say from what point it blows. The principal phenomena of earthquakes are to be explained. But the children should become most intimately acquainted with herbs, trees, and shrubs, and the preceptor should therefore use all his influence to induce neighbors to grow such plants in their gardens, and also to obtain dried and stretched plants to show them to the children, calling their attention particularly to wood, willow, elder, &c. In Zoölogy the children should learn to see in what one animal differs from another, *e. g.*, a frog from a toad, and the preceptor should take the children to a place where a pig or any other animal is killed, point out and give the proper names to the several parts, and remark that the bodies of animals agree in many parts with that of man. (b.) In the chapter on *things ecclesiastic and secular*, the preceptor shall instruct the children about Thuringia; the difference between villages and towns; what may be seen in either, as ditches, water-mills, ramparts, hospitals, &c. And then (150 years before Pestalozzi) we find here the principle: "Every thing that can be shown to children should be shown." The preceptor shall also give information about government, courts of justice, laws, taxes, &c., of merchants and pedlars, and make it understood what a blessing good schools are. Lastly, the preceptor shall imprint on the children's minds a number of good domestic rules. (c.) Among the other sciences, the manual first mentions *surveying*. The teacher should not only give the name of the measure and of the carpenter's rule, but show them. If any thing is taught that can be drawn, like angles, circles, &c., the teacher should first draw it on the tablet (blackboard,) and then cause the children to imitate it. The measuring line, the plummet, the square, the scale of reduction, &c., are to be explained. When speaking of circles, it should be shown that a string stretched round the crown of a hat is a little more than three times its diameter. The children should then be taught to measure and compute figures, being taken into gardens and public places for the purpose. The same should be done with reference to casks and other hollow measures. To render the instruction in natural philosophy effective, it is prescribed that there shall be kept in every superintendent's office, a balance with weights, a lever, a number of blocks with rollers and ropes, &c., with which the preceptor should

experiment. *Chapter IX, speaks of Christian discipline and godliness.* The necessity of a good school-discipline is pointed out, and especially the value of good example shown. In regard to punishments, it is desired that the preceptor should not inflict punishment when angry ; he should punish with temperance, and in mixed schools without offense to the other sex. *Chapter X, treats of the duties and of the conduct of the children.* The moral conduct of the children should engage the greatest attention ; they should regularly attend school, say devoutly their prayers at morning, noon, and evening ; sit straight in school, never walk negligently and stoopingly ; they must not eat, whisper, laugh, play, or prompt ; must, when answering, speak distinctly, loud and not too fast ; they must be always tidy, keep quiet at school, politely bow in the street to all ecclesiastic and secular dignitaries ; when at play, not quarrel or use bad language ; they must honor their parents, not steal, not lie, not throw stones, not bathe cold, &c. *Chapter XI, treats of the preceptor's and assistant's duties.* He who teaches children should remember that to neglect a pupil is to commit a flagrant sin. He should treat the children kindly, and show a hearty interest in them. All abusive language is prohibited, and such words as scamp, thief, devil's child, cur, &c., must not be used. Punishment is to be inflicted in this way : the child is to be reprimanded and threatened, if the offense be not great ; if this should not produce the desired effect, punishment should follow, not however with sticks, books, keys, or fists ; nor is the delinquent to be pulled by the hair, nor pushed, nor kicked ; but the rod is to be used, more or less severely, according to circumstances. If the offense should be too severe, the minister's decision should be requested. The preceptors are desired faithfully to use their gifts, bestowed on them by God ; diligently to read the manual and to act accordingly ; to pay strict attention to the sermon, and to live according to its precepts. He is expected to keep school very punctually, to keep careful account of the absentees, to lead a godly, quiet, retired life, to keep good fellowship with his colleagues, and to show due respect and obedience to his superiors, viz., the superintendent, the assistant, the minister, and the other inspectors. *Chapter XII, treats of the duties of parents and guardians.* Parents are obliged to send their children regularly and punctually to school, and make them act as good children should. According to the manual, a fine is to be levied of one groschen for every hour's absence, for the first offense ; two groschen for the second offense, and so on to six groschen for each hour's absence. The money thus collected by fines shall be employed for the purchase of school-books, &c., for indigent children. The chapter closes with an exhortation addressed to the parents, to keep good discipline at home. *Chapter XIII, treats of the annual examination.* There shall be held an examination every year, a week before harvest, at which the teacher is required to exhibit minute tables, showing the number of pupils, the proficiency and absences of each child ; they shall also show how far the children have advanced in

the catechism, articles of faith, proverbs, psalms, reading, writing, singing, arithmetic, &c. ; they shall, lastly, show whether there has been any deficiency of books, paper, pens, and ink. The superintendents or assistants are instructed to have the last year's tables with them, to collate them with those of the present year, and thus arrive, independently, at a result about the progress of the children. Every child is required to write a copy, do a sum, and read in the examination, in order to prove that the report, as exhibited in the tables of the schoolmaster, corresponds with the fact. The examination closed, the examiners shall pronounce the "translocation," and give a vacation to the school.

These are the contents of the school-manual, (*methodus*), the grandest work of the many grand creations of Ernest the Pious, and that in a time when life and property were trodden into the dust, and when licentious mobs stubbornly resisted the establishment of schools—a work which was destined to be the foundation of a new edifice in Germany, because A. H. Franké, (whose father was counselor to the duke,) carried into effect subsequently the principles of the school-methodus in Halle, and rendered it thus available for all schools. The new regulations were received with laughter and derision in the principality of Gotha itself; yet the duke was not disconcerted. He first obtained better teachers, built twenty new school-houses as models, established a new school-inspection, and charged rector Reyher to get the necessary school-books for teachers and pupils. "*The German Hornbook and Speller for children of the principality of Gotha*" was published, 1641; "*The German Reader*," 1642; and both were given gratis to each child, an instruction which is still in force. Reyher published later the "*Arithmetica*," and (1656) the "*Short Instruction*" in natural objects, in some useful sciences, in ecclesiastic and secular institutions of the country, and in some domestic prescripts;" and in 1655 he published some patterns of catechising on penitence, the virtues and vices spoken of in the Ten Commandments, on the value of the holy communion, &c. When it was reported to the duke that some teachers did not study satisfactorily for their self-improvement, he issued an order that they should study arithmetic and writing more earnestly, either by themselves or with their pastors, or the inspectors of schools. To improve the domestic education of the children, a "short instruction" was published, 1654, "on the behavior, &c., of children," when going to school, at dinner, at home, in church, at play, at supper, when going to bed, when in company of strangers, on rising early, &c. This instruction was not only posted in every village, but the duke decreed, May 1, 1654, that it should be read in every school on examination day, in presence of the mayor, citizens, and elders of every township. But it is not only for the inner improvement of schools that the duke labored so honestly and faithfully; it is also astonishing how much he did to improve the material condition of the teachers, by raising their salaries and their official position. Some facts may find a place here. There existed till 1646, in the duchy of

Gotha, the unreasonable custom, degrading to the teacher, by which he, like the cowherd and night-watchman, was compelled to renew every year the petition to be continued in his office and to receive again a few groschen as an earnest (*Leihkauf*.) The duke put a stop to this practice by the decree of August 7th, 1646, and ordered that the schoolmasters should be appointed once for all by the proper authority. Nobody had thought of caring for the teacher's widow and orphans until he, in 1645, visiting a school in the bailiwick of Reinhardsbrunn, and finding the teacher sick in bed, and yet faithfully and diligently instructing the children, who were standing around him, resolved to institute a fund for invalid teachers, and in case of death, their widows. And how much did the pious prince do for the increase of the teachers' salaries! First, he set aside, from his private property, a capital of 27,000 m. fl., at $\frac{7}{8}$ thalers Prussian,) partly for the increase of salaries, partly for the purchase of spelling-books and readers for the children. Then, in 1650, he prevailed upon the estates of the principality to vote three levies of taxes, in three succeeding years, amounting in all to 80,750 m. fl., for the increase of the ministers' and teachers' salaries; in 1660, when Henneberg was annexed, he again devoted 20,000 m. fl., and subsequently increased this foundation for other charitable purposes (orphans, poor, church and school inspections) to 142,021 m. fl., 9 groschen, at that time an enormous sum. He gave, moreover, from his private purse, additional pay to those teachers who distinguished themselves by fidelity and diligence in the performance of their duty. This amounted to 1,657 fl. in 1666. Well, therefore, might the duke recite with great satisfaction to Weller, minister of state at Dresden, on the 12th of August, 1653, that every schoolmaster's salary in his country amounted at least to 50 fl. in coin, (equal to 200 thalers Prussian money at present,) and besides a house, two rations of bread grain, kitchen vegetables, wood, &c. This was, in fact, a respectable salary at a time when a bushel of rye flour cost 1 m. fl., a bushel of barley 15 groschen, a bushel of oats 9 gr., a cord of wood, $1\frac{1}{2}$ thalers, 20 eggs 5 gr., a yard of linen ($\frac{3}{4}$ wide) 2 gr., 8 pfennigs. The duke, "mindful of his Christian duty and the heavy responsibility before God's throne of judgment," considered the increase of salary necessary. These improvements in the condition of the teachers receive, however, their true lustre from the circumstance that the duke was not induced to take these steps by personal vanity, but by true devotion to God and true love of his people, and secondly from the circumstance that the duke proved how well he appreciated the hard labor of faithful schoolmasters, "who, in their schools, lay the first foundation of true Christianity, performing thus the most important and most difficult task; wherefore they should receive a sufficient compensation." As for himself, he had few wants; he spent his income for others.* "A

* Dr. A. Beck relates, in his *Life of Ernest the Pious*, (Weimar, Böhlau,) the following characteristic traits, illustrating the duke's economy: The duke wrote to bailiff Hackspan, in Zella, giving order that he should send a milch-cow to Reinhardsbrunn as a birth-day present to his

prince," he used to say, "must not only consider that *he* is a man, but that his *subjects* too are men." Knowing all this, it is not to be wondered at that the people in all Germany said: "The duke's peasants are more wide awake than citizens and noblemen elsewhere." The pious duke, who, during his life, had not only been a praying-Ernest (Earnest) but also a working-Ernest, (Earnest,) died on the 26th of March, 1675. On his death-bed even, he admonished the officers of the State to keep up good order and propriety in church and school. His body has moldered in the tomb of Margaret church, but the memory of this just man remains a blessing!

After Ernest's death, the land was divided into seven portions, and Frederic I, the late duke's eldest son, succeeded him as duke of Gotha-Altenburg. He governed from 1675 to 1691, and showed the deepest reverence for his father's admirable institutions; yet he did not realize the expectations which the people had formed of the pious duke's son and successor. He had the best *will* to further the condition of the common schools, but he was deficient in insight, energy, and money. There were three causes of the deficiency in money. Firstly, Frederic was but duke of Gotha-Altenburg, and had therefore only two-sevenths of his father's income. Secondly, he was wanting in the virtue of economy; he spent too much for his court, which he had established after the fashion of Louis XIV, and expended a large portion of his revenues on the chase, the theatre, fireworks, splendid dresses, expensive dishes, &c. But, thirdly, the greatest portion of his revenue was swallowed up by an army, which he raised to six regiments of cavalry and four of infantry; an armed force so extravagant that the German emperor, in 1691, grew suspicious of the duke's hostile intentions toward him. Thus did the little country of Gotha prove, what has later been confirmed by other and larger States, that schools never flourish where the military is too much favored. The common schools visibly deteriorated in Gotha, and alchemy, to which the duke had devoted himself with great zeal and confidence, proved to be incapable of procuring the means necessary for the prosperity of schools. Nor was the son of Frederic I, duke Frederic II, (from 1693 to 1732,) able to stop the decline of the common schools. He imitated, as his father had done, the expensive court of Versailles, and, in spite of the earnest remonstrances of the assembly, increased the annual expenses for the army to 165,124 thalers, at that time an enormous sum. The bad results of such extravagance could not be neutralized, either by a supplement to the school-methodus, published in 1698, or by the other decrees issued in the interest of the schools, *a. g.*, 1701, directing school statistics to be carefully kept; 1720, his grandfather's school-laws to

duchess, but that its price should not be higher than five florins. Once, when passing a night in one of his castles, he extinguished two of the four candles placed in his chamber, and, observing that the bailiff used two candles for himself, he extinguished one of them too, saying that these were but sorry times. Luxury, he used to say, is an insatiable glutton; expensive festivities, the chase, theatres, ballets, fireworks, &c., are apt to be oppressive to the subjects of a prince.

be read once every year in school; 1726, the children to be taught to understand the difference between Catholics and Protestants, &c. Even the ten *seminaria scholastica*, founded by him in Friemar, Eschenbergen, Ichtershausen, Wölfls, Leina, Tambach, Sättelstedt, Erfa or Friedrichswerth, Wangenheim, and Kranigfeld, were very soon discontinued, in consequence of the want of money.

During the reign of duke Frederic III, (1732 to 1772,) the storm of the Seven Years' War desolated the country, and it relapsed from the condition of having no debt, as was the case at the death of duke Ernest, into that of being overwhelmed with debt. The schools did not improve, but quite the reverse; misery and wretchedness prevailed every where. Duke Ernest's school-manual existed still *de jure*, but the common schools had received no encouragement. Their continuance was all that had been cared for; their gradual improvement had been neglected. Thus it resulted that the teacher held the school-method no longer in proper estimation, as it had become altogether a forgotten document, interesting only to the antiquary. How fearful the demoralization must have been, can be learned from the decrees issued by Frederic III. Thus we read in the circular of the consistory, (Sept. 11th, 1741 :) "We have, with great displeasure, perceived that a great many persons make teaching their profession without sufficient cultivation of their faculties. Many of the teachers have employed incapable masters to teach them a little instrumental and vocal music, which is not an important requisite, but they are unable to awaken in the children's heads a true understanding of the catechism, unable to jot down the sermon, to hear the children recite, much more unable to give instruction about any thing in nature. They know little of penmanship and arithmetic, and yet, in spite of their ignorance, twenty apply for one vacancy in a school, because, as they say, they have learned nothing else by which to make a living. They do so from love of a comfortable life, and from fear of the plough; but this must and shall be stopped, and our most gracious duke has therefore pleased to decree that you (superintendents) are required to select teachers from young men of ability, who will devote themselves for life and with enthusiasm to this work, and to reject bungling boys," &c. How little such decrees effected, and how little power the consistory possessed to give force to such decrees, is shown by the number of monitory decrees of Oct. 11, 1746; July 7, 1750; Oct. 2, 1750; April 16, 1760. The chairs of the teachers remained occupied by the poorest pupils of a gymnasium, discharged corporals, bankrupt tradesmen, and, above all, by servants of the household of a count, (patron of a school,) who had outlived their usefulness in the family. They brought the once celebrated Gotha schools into discredit.

These abuses were checked with a vigorous hand by duke Ernest II, of Gotha-Altenburg (1772 to 1804.) It was "Ernest the Wise," son of Frederic III, who called, in 1783, Christian Gotthilf Salzmann, teacher

of religion at the Philantropin in Dessau, to Gotha, and assisted him most liberally in the establishment of the educational institute at Schnepfenthal in 1784, partly by a donation of 4,000 thalers, partly by the loan of 5,000 thalers without interest, and partly by other privileges and grants. It was Ernest II, the great contemporary of Joseph II, and intimate friend of Göethe and Herder, who founded, in 1780, the seminary for teachers in Gotha, and appointed John Ernest Christian Haun, minister to the orphan asylum, to be its senior teacher and "master of method." It was Ernest II, the savant among contemporary princes, who raised the Gotha schools again to eminence, and made them, for the second time, patterns for all countries. As Ernest the Pious had employed Reyher for the execution of his reformatory plans, so Ernest II employed Haun. The latter received his appointment as inspector of the country schools in 1783, and it was his privilege and duty to subject all schools, except the town-schools, to a vigorous and minute inspection. Haun discharged this mission, during the eighteen years he held the position, in a manner which does credit to his judgment as an educator, and to his character as a man. Of a nature like Elias, inexorable and unyielding, Haun rushed like a whirlwind into the corrupt Gotha schools, cleansing them thoroughly from the chaff of incapable teachers. He was not only a terror to all good-for-nothing teachers, but he performed a more meritorious work, viz., he applied his practical ability to the education of a new generation of teachers, and cleared the way for the introduction of the latest improvements into the common schools. Haun required that any piece, singled out for declamation, should be explained to the child before committing it to memory; he desired clear understanding in place of senseless memory-work, and practical and logical instruction in place of the old stupefying method. He abolished the tyrannical school-discipline; he forbade teachers to put irons around the boys' necks, to cover them with mud, or to make them kneel on peas. He punished those teachers severely who gave holydays without permission. The old servants of noblemen, when not equal to the new work, were superseded. In a short time the inert mass became animated with life, and the germs of a new and better period began to develop every where. It was but natural that Haun, "the wicked innovator," made many enemies by his energetic proceedings; yet it is to be regretted that his worst enemies were just those who ought to have assisted him most vigorously, viz., the clergy of the country. Their opposition assumed a shape which we, in our days, can scarcely believe.* What the clergy, in alliance with the worthless among the schoolmasters, could not effect, was tried by the feudal lords and noble school-patrons. The counts and knights, as well as the late Hohenlohe counselors, protested in the assembly against any tax on church-property, to be applied as a contribution toward the salary of the land-school inspector, and utterly refused to employ those teachers who had been educated in Haun's seminary. But

* Second annual Report of the Gotha Seminary for teachers, p. 31, *seq.*

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA.

n came out of all these struggles a victor. Thus was attained what, twenty years before, would have been considered impossible, viz.: the common schools were reconstructed from their very foundation, a superior generation of teachers was educated, and sensible methods of teaching were introduced. "The common-school methodus, or practical instruction for inspectors and teachers of every kind of elementary schools, also for private teachers; illustrated by correct tables constructed by J. E. Christian Haun; published (1801) by Geo. Adam Keyser, in Erfurt," contains, according to a statement in the preface, a description of the methods of teaching in the Gotha schools; and renders it therefore a speaking witness of the spirit of that time. It would lead too far to give here the contents of Haun's school methodus, but this one remark may be allowed, that this work, tested by the pedagogic principles of the period preceding and following, shows all the deficiencies and merits which are peculiar to the deism and philanthropinism of the last century, and that undoubtedly the schools which were taught according to Haun's methodus, were the best of their time. The book, in spite of the utilitarianism it displays, gives evidence of a strictly moral spirit, a clear comprehension, a strict discrimination, earnest exertions, and, above all, practical applicability. It is a pity that the indefatigable Haun should have fallen so soon a sacrifice to his zeal and his exertions; he died, only 53 years old, March 22d, 1801. But it is much more to be regretted that Haun's untimely death should have been followed by a long pause in the development of the common schools. The Gotha schools shine for a time, after duke Ernest's death, in the reflected light of their past glory, but then disappear altogether from the history of education.

As the party of reaction had seized upon the Gotha public schools after the death of Ernest the Pious; so did they now, after the death of Ernest II. What was done in reference to schools under his successors, down to the extinction of the line of Gotha's princes and to the consolidation of Gotha with Coburg in 1826, is not worth mentioning. The successors of practical Haun labored neither in the seminary nor as inspectors of schools, in the spirit of sound pedagogic science. The mistake made was simply this, that those gentlemen were learned ecclesiastics, but certainly not practical educators, without a clear understanding of the nature of schools, and without interest in their successful development. Thus it will be understood why Ernest's school-plan, though still the law, was in fact neglected, and why Haun's school methodus was not followed. Nobody caring for the monthly plans of lessons, the public schools had, for a long time, no plan at all, no method whatever. Every one did what he liked, as he liked it, and because he liked it. Voight's scientific text-book, which had been used in the Gotha schools, was discarded by the consistory, "because it is unnecessary to teach in elementary schools the German language, history, and geography; the teaching of these branches make men neither better,

nor wiser, nor more diligent, nor more happy." The School-Reader, composed by superintendent-general Loeffler, was discarded with the remark, "that instruction in religion by proverbs and verses, only, was not sufficient; that the articles of faith were passed over, and that morals were not taught in detail." The principle of object-teaching was ridiculed; a person of quality saying "that exercises in comparing and discriminating visible objects, as a dwelling-house and a church, a sheep and a goose, &c., were laughed at by the parents; such objects could be taken one for the other by a lunatic, only; that there were invisible objects enough to exercise the understanding of children by, as moral ideas, the difference between economy and stinginess, of mirth and wantonness, &c." The post of an inspector of country schools was repealed in 1817. The teachers were henceforth no longer specially inspected at their ordinary work; they passed again under the general control of ecclesiastics, who took the school, for inspection, into their churches. The local inspection by the local ministers was either altogether neglected, or very rarely and superficially performed. Prussia and the neighboring states of Thuringia, viz., Weimar, Meiningen, Rudolstadt, sent delegates to Pestalozzi, in order to study his system of teaching, with a view of engrafting it upon their own systems. Gotha thought it not worth her while to notice a phenomenon, which marked the beginning of a new epoch in the history of teaching. The most reasonable requests of Mr. Waitz, director of the seminary, were refused. It will scarcely be believed, and yet it is true, that the seminary for teachers in Gotha, together with the seminary school, were, till 1846, penned up in one single, small, damp hired room of the penitentiary, and that it was seriously proposed to dissolve the school altogether, "in order that the more important might not suffer by the less important." A somewhat more decent locality was at last found in 1846; a Reader for common schools was published in 1854, but a plan of studies, a programme for the internal work, was not issued before 1860. In brief, the consistory dissolved in 1858, and committed so many and so great blunders, was guilty of so great a neglect of the schools, it is not to be wondered at, that things came to such a pass in Gotha. It is, however, the duty of truthfulness and gratitude distinctly to state, that the authorities in Gotha have done every thing, since 1848, to atone for the mistakes of the past, and that particularly the State ministry have done all in their power to prevent the differences between church and school from widening into a complete rupture. They have not been wanting in good will, devotion, and sacrifice; yet as every sin is revenged on earth, so it happens in this case. The seeds of the past have yielded their fruit. The controversy grew more and more pointed, the wildly surging waves of hostility engulfed the well-meant mediation of the State ministry, and buried in their flood the whole relation that had hitherto existed between church and school. The organization of common schools, published in 1863, gave clear expression to the tendencies of the spirit

of our time, and proclaimed the separation of school and church, or rather the discontinuance of clerical supervision over the schools.

B. THE PRESENT CONDITION OF SCHOOLS.

A programme of instruction regulates the inner life of the common schools, the organic statute regulates their other relations. Superintendent-general Dr. Petersen speaks about the programme in the assembly, in 1863, in this manner: "A so-called table of lessons was, at the beginning of this century, (1810,) prescribed for our common schools. It referred originally only to recitations from memory, but was gradually applied to other subjects of instruction. This table of lessons, used in our schools for a long time, has by degrees disappeared; nor could any copies be found at the office of the consistory. The public schools had, moreover, in their general development, gone much farther than the table prescribed. The government, therefore, found itself under the necessity of composing a new programme in agreement with the demands of our time. Many preliminary labors had to be gone through; the local managers held meetings to hear the opinions of the teachers, and reported from each district; an enormous pile of documents accumulated. When these preliminary labors were, after some years, so far completed as to allow a general survey, the results of these accumulated official documents and of the experience of the common schools in Germany in general, had to be worked into a system. Though the programme has thus been constructed, yet the government did not consider it right to issue that document at once as an instruction. A special committee was appointed, to which there were called three of our most able teachers, Pitter, Keher, Burbach, and three ministers, Härter, Anacker, Bieber. The committee examined section after section, and thus a programme was composed which is the result not only of the experience in our own schools, but also in those of all Germany." The programme, of which Lübin says, that it is in every respect equal to all the demands of the science of teaching, and that it shows none of the mistakes which have been committed by the Prussian instructions, is noticeable also for this, that it marks down "Diesterweg's guide to education, for German teachers," in the "catalogue of books of reference" recommended to teachers.

The programme contains, in six chapters, the whole mechanism of public schools: *Chapter I*, treats of the division of the school into classes, and prescribes that every common school, in which all the children are taught by one teacher, shall be divided into four classes, viz.: 1st class, children in their first school-year; 2d class, children in their second and third year; 3d class, children in their fourth and fifth year, and 4th class, children in their sixth, seventh, and eighth years. *Chapter II*, treats of the number of recitations and their order during the day, of the time of beginning the school, &c. *Chapter III*, treats of the subjects of instruction in the different classes, viz.: Religion, German,

(reading and writing,) arithmetic, geography and history, singing, drawing. In girls' schools, needle-work is obligatory and regulated by special instructions. *Chapter IV*, contains hints about the plan of teaching in "divided" or graded schools. *Chapter V*, contains the method which characterizes the spirit of the whole programme. Some extracts may profitably find a place here: "Teaching attains its full value only when it promotes education and nourishes a moral religious sense in the young. It is a fundamental law that the school shall not only be an institution for instruction, but, above all, an institution for education. The teacher must, by his personal conduct, always maintain a moral influence over the children in his trust, and treat the subjects taught in such a manner that he may educate through his instruction." "The teachers should always bear in mind, that the children must be properly educated for practical life by his teaching. Cramming and reciting the lessons will therefore not at all answer the purpose; the teacher should rather earnestly labor to produce a perfect understanding of the lesson, to assimilate it with the mind of the child, and to continue the exercises until the child is prepared to make independently a practical application of it. Care should at the same time be taken that the faculties of the children be naturally developed. The important principle, "to instruct in such a manner, that the child understands you perfectly," should not be taken as a general law only, but be also applied to every special case. To treat a subject so as to make it the absolute property of the child, necessarily involves a certain routine and technical skill in teaching. And yet teaching and learning must not be a mere mechanism; it should rather be a quickening activity of the mind, the mechanism but the means, skillfully applied, to attain the end." "The school is intended to educate for work in general, by leading children, in appropriating and applying the subject taught to them, to exercise their own powers vigorously and freely, and at the same time carefully and strictly. Let the teacher set an example by performing his daily round of duties with cheerful devotion, conscientious even in the smallest details, that the children may learn to devote themselves with cheerful devotion and great carefulness to their labors in school. This exercise in doing work is a main object of school teaching. But the pleasure in and love of work in school must be excited by that instruction which renders a thorough understanding and practical application possible. The teacher, therefore, must always bear in mind, first, that every child, even the smallest, should be occupied in school with a work for which its understanding and its powers have previously been prepared, and, secondly, that every subject of instruction, as soon as it is understood, should be applied to independent exercises. Such work is intended to exercise the faculties and powers of a child in such a manner as to enable it to perform every labor in practical life with cheerful devotion, and at the same time with carefulness and ability." "A mechanical method should be particularly avoided in the religious instruction, as it might mislead the children to consider

religion to be something external. The memory exercises should, therefore, be more than "learning by rote;" the children should be accustomed, from the very beginning, to lay hold of that which they commit to memory, both with the understanding and the heart, and to store it up for application in life." "The method of teaching how to read may be left to the option of each teacher, but he should very carefully avoid making it a purely mechanical exercise. The younger teachers, however, are required to employ one of the modern methods." "The children are to be accustomed to read with attention, and to remember what they have read." "The principal laws of the formation of words and sentences should be practiced, in connection with the reading exercise, in this manner, that the children, by degrees, learn to point out the general rules and the principal laws of the language." "In arithmetic, mental calculations mainly should be practiced; exercises on the slate should, however, always be connected with them." To instruct the children in general knowledge of the earth and its products, it is desirable that the teacher should collect, with the children's assistance, a number of natural objects. "Completeness and systematic order are, however, not necessary; it suffices if a number of stones, dried plants, seeds and similar objects are kept cleanly and neatly in boxes, and used according to need. Fresh plants, flowers and fruits can be used for instruction in Spring, Summer, and Autumn. During Winter, examine objects merely as to their shape and their boundaries by planes and lines; take for that purpose regular solids, such as cubes, spheres, prisms, pyramids, cylinders, cones, &c., which the teacher may easily construct of pasteboard. Let not the teacher attend, in the beginning, to so-called systematic divisions and classifications, nor let him be contented with dry, isolated notices, but let him give animated descriptions of nature. The systematic classification should be given at the closing chapter of the whole instruction in the highest class. Every thing that has connection with agriculture claims particular attention; horticulture should, if possible, be practically taught to the pupils of the highest class. Let the teacher bear in mind that in imparting to the children the knowledge of the earth and its products, he should not only communicate to them useful information, but also awaken and nourish in them a sense of the beautiful and magnificent in nature and that which is noble and good in history." The object of the drawing lesson is "correct measuring by the eye, skill in using the ruler, which should also be used as a carpenter's rule, and facility in sketching simple figures." "The culture of the voice should be highly valued. Let the teacher understand that singing can and must be one of the principal levers of education; that its influence is great and lasting." "In connection with the culture of the children's intellects, the most earnest attention should be paid to their bodily welfare. The school can and must have a salutary influence on the after life, by producing habits of order, cleanliness, and good manners. The carriage of the body should always be under the watchful eye of the teacher; he

must keep his school also, in this respect, in good discipline, that the children avoid carelessness in sitting, walking, or standing, and that they always show by their deportment a firm government over their body. Systematic gymnastics serve this purpose best, and ought, therefore, to be diligently practiced.

Such is the programme of the Gotha common schools. The spirit of modern education pervades it, and it shows this spirit principally by the accompanying decree, in which the following passage occurs: "The *ephor*i are lastly enjoined henceforth to enumerate in their reports on school-visitations and conferences, their observations and experiences in regard to this programme; for it is the intention to complete and rectify it, wherever necessary, according to the collected observations and experiences, so that it may be improved more and more satisfactorily as the theory and practice of teaching improve."

The law of common schools for the duchy of Gotha, issued in June, 1863, is in perfect harmony with this programme. It is arranged under eight sections, which are subdivided into one hundred articles; it is an exponent of the principles on which modern schools rest. *Section I*, Art. 1 to 5, treats of the general rights and duties of the citizens, as regards the instruction of the young. Art. 1, The duty to attend school as a general law. Art. 2, treats of the branches of instruction in a common school. The instruction—says this law—shall embrace the following branches: Religion, German language, exercises in reading and writing, arithmetic, geography, history, natural history and philosophy, singing, drawing, and gymnastics. The teaching of religion in common schools shall be founded on Bible history, particularly of the New Testament. When the children commence to receive instruction to qualify them for their first communion, they will be excused from this branch of instruction in the school. Art. 3, treats of the objects the common school has in view, and the means to attain them. "The common school is intended to educate children to a self-conscious, moral activity, and to develop their intellectual faculties." There shall not be taught any thing which is above the perceptive faculties of children; their memory shall not be burdened with any thing that has not previously been perfectly explained." "The disciplinary power of the teacher shall be in harmony with the paternal character of the office of a teacher." Art. 4, extends the obligation to attend school over a period of eight years. Art. 5, provides for the attendance in a higher class of schools, or proper private instruction, as a discharge from the obligation to attend the public school. *Section II*, Art. 6 to 11, defines the duties and rights of the school-districts, concerning organization and maintenance of schools. Art. 6, determines the limits of school-districts; and the consolidation of several into one. Art. 7, provides for every district one common school, and more if necessary. Art. 8, fixes the normal number of children in a common school at eighty. The number of teachers, as well as of school-rooms, must be increased in proportion to the excess over this number.

Art. 9, ordains that every school must be kept in a house used for no other purpose; all the rooms designed for the use of the school must be built and furnished in harmony with the demands of instruction and of health. Art. 10, provides that exceptions under Art. 7, 8, and 9, should be regulated by the administration. Art. 11, Every school must be in possession of all the necessary materials; particular care should be taken to obtain a library. Art. 12, It is the duty of the district to defray the expenses of common schools, so far as they have not been hitherto paid from other sources. Art. 15, The annual tuition fee shall, in towns, not exceed four thalers for one child, six thalers for two children, eight thalers for three and more. The fee shall, in the other places, not exceed half the above amount. Art. 16, Those districts which have given evidence that they can not possibly defray the whole of the expenses of the public school, shall receive the necessary assistance from the State treasury. *Section III*, Art. 17 to 28, relates to particular duties and rights of parents and guardians of children liable to attend school. Art. 17, regulates the age when the duty to attend school begins, (after the completion of the sixth year.) Art. 18, The children are but once a year admitted as scholars, viz., at the beginning of the scholastic year, the week after Easter. Art. 19, Children leave school at Easter of that year in which they have completed their fourteenth year. Art. 20, regulates the dispensation from attendance at the instruction in religion. Articles 21 and 22, speak of the place where school shall be kept, and the regularity of attendance at school. In cases when absences are not at all or not satisfactorily accounted for, the local school-board may (Art. 23) enforce a fine of not more than five thalers, or equivalent imprisonment. Art. 24, regulates complaints of parents against teachers, and distinctly states that nobody is permitted to enter the school-room for such a purpose, or to call a teacher personally to account. Trespassers shall pay a fine of not more than ten thalers, or shall be punished by equivalent imprisonment. Art. 25, treats of the exclusion of children from the privilege of attending school, for reasons of discipline, of police or of criminal law, and of the manner in which such children shall receive private instruction. The private instruction and its control is regulated in Articles 26, 27, and 28. *Section IV*, Art. 29 to 36, is "on the training of common school teachers; the matriculation and obligations of candidates." Art. 29, The State charges itself with the training of common school teachers in the seminary. Art. 30, Admission to the seminary not before the applicant has completed his sixteenth year. Art. 31, Conditions for admission: (a,) certificate of qualification for the *Secunda* of the gymnasium at least, or (b,) certificate of qualification for the *Prima* of the progymnasium at Ohrdruf, or (c,) the candidate must pass an examination equivalent to the above demands. Art. 32, In regard to the subjects of instruction, the law requires that besides the course of the gymnasium, (except foreign languages,) at least the following shall be added: Pedagogy and its history, anthropology and physiology, literature, and music. Art. 33,

The studies, began at the gymnasium, are partly to be completed, particularly mathematics and natural philosophy, partly to be reviewed with a view to their treatment at the common school. The instruction in religion is essentially historical, embracing the history of the progress of Christianity, in connection with the books of the Old and New Testaments, and history of the progress of the Christian Church. Art. 34, The number of students to be admitted is not limited. The tuition is free to natives, and to foreigners on the payment of twenty thalers a year. Art. 35, treats of the matriculation of the candidate. Art. 36, places the matriculated candidate under the obligation to serve as assistant or substitute for a longer or shorter portion of two years. *Section V*, Art. 37 to 41, is on the appointment of teachers at common schools. Art. 37, The privilege of election rests with the district, provided it has not received any pecuniary assistance for its schools from the State, during the five years preceding the time when the vacancy occurs. The election requires the confirmation of the government. Art. 38, regulates the right of election of the patrons. Art. 39, treats of the appointments by the government. The latter is authorized to appoint a teacher, when the district has received assistance from the State to defray the expenses of the school within the last five years, or when the district or patron has not filled the vacancy within four months from the day the vacancy commenced. Art. 40, The first appointment of a teacher is, as a rule, only provisional; this provisorium shall, however, last no longer than two years. Art. 41, treats of the appointment of female teachers. It is prescribed that examined female teachers may, with the consent of the district and the minister of State, be intrusted, in the prescribed manner, with the instruction of children of the first, second, and third years of their attendance at school. *Section VI*, Art. 42 to 62, treats of the rights and duties of teachers of common schools. Art. 42, The salary varies according to the appointment being revocable or irrevocable, and according to the number of pupils. (A.) The teachers who are revocably appointed shall receive as a minimum, (a,) 150 thalers and free lodging, or an equivalent indemnification when they are vicars or assistants; (b,) 175 and lodging, or indemnification when they are provisionally appointed teachers. (B.) There are three classes of irrevocably appointed teachers: (a,) at a school in the country with 50 or less pupils, the minimum salary shall be, from the first to fifth year included, 200 thalers and free lodging; from the fifth to tenth year, 280 thalers; from the tenth to fifteenth year, 260 thalers; from the sixteenth year, 290 thalers; (b,) at a school in the country with more than 50 pupils, (including the schools in the towns of Friedrichsrode and Zella,) the minimum shall be; from the first to fifth year, 200 thalers; from the fifth to tenth year, 240 thalers; from the tenth to fifteenth year, 280 thalers; from the sixteenth year, 320 thalers; (c,) at the schools in the towns of Gotha, Ohrdruf, and Waltershausen, the minimum shall be: from the first to fifth year, 250 thalers, (no free lodging;) from the fifth to tenth year, 300 thalers; from

the tenth to fifteenth year, 850 thalers; from the sixteenth year, 400 thalers. Included in the salaries of those teachers who have to perform church duties as cantors, organists or sacristans, are the emoluments and perquisites connected with these duties. Other income, which the teachers derive as clerks of the district or book-keeper of the church, are not included in the salary. Art. 43, treats of the computation of the number of pupils, and of the time the teachers have served. Art. 44, treats of the manner of paying the salary, (teachers in the country must take part of their salary in kind.) Art. 45, Estimates of salaries. Art. 46, How to divide the salary between the new teacher and the one who retires. Art. 47, Of the extra occupation of teachers of common schools. Art. 48, Of the particular privileges of teachers appointed irrevocably. These rights are: (a.) claims to be pensioned (after ten years or less of service, 40 per cent. of the salary; for every additional year or fraction of it, $1\frac{1}{2}$ per. cent. more;) (b,) admission to the widow fund, (by paying 4 per cent. a year of his salary, the widow or children of a teacher shall receive one-fourth of the salary until the youngest child has reached the age of 21;) (c,) the right and duty to be a member of those charitable institutions which are organized for the benefit of common school teachers. Art. 49, The maximum number of hours a teacher may be employed is thirty per week. The Board may grant furloughs. Art. 50, Marriage licenses of teachers. Articles 51 to 62, Penal code concerning teachers charged with dereliction, viz.: suspension, waiting order, dismissal, removal. *Section VII*, Art. 63 to 84, treats of the inspection of public schools. The law discriminates between two classes of inspection of public schools, viz., inspection by the district and by the government. The district inspection is vested in the Board, consisting of the chairman of the councilmen (mayor or bailiff,) the minister of the place, the teachers of the place, and as many citizens of the district as there are teachers in the Board. The minister may, but must not necessarily, be chairman; directors of schools and teachers are not allowed to be chairmen. A modification of this organization takes place, when several districts are consolidated into one, and in towns. The government has three classes of inspectors: (a,) the district school inspectors, Art. 85, requiring that they should be selected from among practical schoolmen; (b,) school-courts, consisting of the district administrator—or in towns the mayor—and the district inspector; (c,) the ministry of State, being the highest school authority, which (Art. 91) appoints a practical schoolman as inspector-general, who shall assist as counselor in all that concerns education and instruction in public schools, at the sessions of the ministers of State.* *Section VIII*, Art. 93 to 100, contains final and transitory decrees, which have mostly accomplished their purpose.

This short extract will enable the reader to understand the character which distinguishes the common school law of Gotha. It can not be de-

* Instruction for district school-inspectors in the duchy of Gotha, in Dr. K. Schmidt's History of the Public Schools in Gotha. Köthen: P. Schettler, 1863.

nied that this law has still many weak points, and the secretary of State has already published, in the way of decrees, a number of supplementary instructions, but taking it as a whole, it offers so much which is good, that the teachers of Gotha are really under great obligations to the ministers of State and the assembly for this great advance in the development of the common school system. Nor can the favorable results be denied; they are proved by the greater activity in the seminary, by the improvement of the common schools, by the greater progress of the pupils, and by the sacrifices readily made by many districts.

How much the common schools in the duchy have advanced in the course of time, is shown by the following statistics: In 1780, the duchy had 110 teachers of public schools; in 1834, it had 174; at present, 240. A similar increase has taken place in regard to school-houses; 16 new schools have been built since the promulgation of the new school law. The average salary of a common school teacher amounted to 70 m. fl. in 1780; in 1867 it is 300 thalers. The annual expense for teachers' salaries amounts at present to between 60,000 and 72,000 thalers. Add to it the expenses for building and repair of school-houses, of materials for school-rooms and teachers, that sum will be considerably higher. The annual contribution of the State to the common school fund amounts to about 30,000 thalers. The 240 common school teachers teach 17,610 children, (15.1 per cent. of the whole population,) in 158 public schools. In common schools of the twelve towns, 51 scientific and 14 technical teachers educate 3,848 children, viz., 1,934 boys, 1,914 girls. In the 146 villages, 189 scientific teachers teach 13,672 children. To 1 town teacher we find 59 pupils, to 1 town pupil, 8.31 inhabitants. To 1 town school we find 2,666 citizens. On the other hand, there average 72 pupils for every school in the country, 1 pupil to every 6.14 inhabitants, and 1 school for every 579 inhabitants; 97 teachers in the country districts teach from 20 to 70 pupils; 84 teach from 70 to 90; 14 teach from 110 to 130; 5 teach more than 130 children each. The schools are divided in the latter cases, *i. e.* they are half-day schools. There are at present on an average 12 new teachers needed every year.

II. HIGHER SCHOOLS.

The higher schools of Gotha may be divided into those which aim at a general education; and those which give an education for certain professions.

A. SCHOOLS OF GENERAL CULTURE.

1. At the head of the schools of higher general culture is the *Gymnasium Ernestinum*, in the city of Gotha. It was founded, as has been stated before, by Fr. Myconius, in 1524, as a city-school, and confirmed as such by elector John the Constant, in 1529. It was changed into a classical school during the reign of Casimir, (1587 to 1633,) and received the title, *Gymnasium illustre*.* The principal of the Gymnasium was, till 1842,

* For the history of the Gotha gymnasium, see Chr. Fr. Schulze's "History of the Gotha Gymnasium: Gotha, 1824."

at the same time the principal of the burgher-school; both being combined in one; after that year, they were separate. The *Gymnasium Ernestinum* (a real-gymnasium) was founded under duke Ernest I, of Coburg-Gotha, in 1838, by the side of the *Gymnasium illustre*, the former institution receiving a principal of its own; but both were combined into one in 1861, under the same principal, in this manner: that the two lower classes, Sexta and Quinta, jointly belonged to the gymnasial and real branch, while the other classes, Quarta, Tertia, Secunda, and Prima, were separate for each institution.

CLASSES.	CLASSICAL GYMNASIUM.					REAL GYMNASIUM.				
	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.	1871.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.	1871.
Prima,	21	21	26	26	25	6	3	2	2	1
Secunda,	32	29	27	30	31	9	12	11	11	14
Tertia,	36	38	38	45	48	28	28	26	36	48
Quarta,	45	49	51	52	52	53	39	41	52	62
Quinta, (coctus A and B.)	97	80	92	101	105					
Sexta, (coctus A and B.)	54	79	68	84	75					

This table shows that the classical or humanist gymnasium contains a comparatively large number of students in the upper classes, whilst the lower classes of the real-gymnasium are the larger. The increase of the number of pupils is represented in the following table:

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.
Aggregate number,	380	378	588	439	461
Among them, of Real-gymnasiums,...	95	82	80	101	125

The number of teachers at the *Gymnasium Ernestinum* (this is now the name of the whole institution,) amounts to 28, viz., 1 principal, 8 professors, 8 gymnasial teachers, and 6 teachers of special branches. Of the old teachers, who laid the foundation of the reputation of the gymnasium, we mention: Bretschneider, Döring, Jacobs, Kries, Schulze, Ukert, Rost, Wüstemann. The annual programme gives all necessary information about organization and plan of studies; it remains, therefore, only to state, that, since 1861, the gymnasium has been reorganized after the pattern of the Prussian gymnasia, and that the teachers and students here and there have the same privileges and duties. The gymnasium is well provided with all the materials for instruction. Besides a very large collection of philosophical instruments and of objects of natural history, for whose completion 250 thalers are annually devoted, it possesses a large library, (about 14,000 volumes;) 532 thalers are annually spent for the purchase of books, &c. There are stipends (donations of 2,000, 1,000, &c., thalers) for poor but deserving students. The widows' fund of the teachers amounts at present to 84,000 thalers. The balance-sheet of the gymnasium shows an income and expense of 18,702 thalers, in which are included 6,000 thalers income from tuition fees, and

8,000 thalers from the government. The salaries are: principal, 1,700 thalers; 2 professors 1,100 th. each; the others 950 and 825 th.; the other gymnasial teachers from 780 down to 500 th.

2. The duchy possesses, besides the gymnasium at Gotha, a real-school at Ohrdruf, which, according to Prussian estimation, is a real-school of the second order—a town institute. Founded in 1564 by the Count von Gleichen as a Latin school, he made at the same time a donation of 10,000 m. fl. The pupils enjoyed the privilege of being admitted as students to the university, after having passed through all the classes of the lyceum. It suffered many changes. Thus, it experienced a serious decrease in pupils at the end of the last century, after a period of great prosperity; then it rose again during the first decade of the present century, and lost again in 1830, till it was changed into a progymnasium in 1854. Having flourished as such for ten years, and having obtained a larger number of pupils every year, it was reorganized (1863) into a real-school of the second order, with classes parallel to the progymnasium. The plan of study is now so arranged, that those scholars who intend to devote themselves to the learned professions, may from its Prima be at once admitted into the Secunda of a gymnasium, and that those who attend the whole course (two years in Prima) may be admitted to Prima of a Prussian real-school of the first order. There were, in 1866, besides the principal, 8 teachers to 220 pupils. A programme, which gives all the necessary information, is published once every two years.

3. In the higher class of schools must be reckoned the institute at Schnepfenthal, which attained great reputation under Salzmann. There were among the pupils of 1864, 3 from Brazil, 4 from Russia, 2 from England, 2 from Switzerland, 5 from Austria and Hungary, 1 from Belgium, 11 from Prussia, 10 from Saxony, 3 from Bavaria, 2 from Hanover, 8 from Mecklenburg, 3 from Hamburg, 1 from Hesse, and 13 from Thuringia.

The *Dietendorfer Institutes* of the "Moravian brethren" may be mentioned as private schools which aim higher than the common schools. The institute for boys, established in 1845, had 2 teachers, 3 assistants, and 25 scholars in 1866. The institute for girls, divided into 4 classes, was opened in 1854, and is at present under a directress, assisted by 9 female teachers, among whom are one French and one English lady, who teach 46 boarders and 25 day-scholars. Both institutes are placed under the superintendence of 1 inspector, assisted by the directors of the community, under the authority of the Union of Evangelical brethren.

4. To the higher class of girls' schools belongs, further, the *Maria Institute*, in Gotha. It is a boarding and day-school for young ladies (from 8 to 18 years) of the higher walks of society, is owned by Miss Alice Humbert, of Neuchatel, who, with her sister, superintends the education, assisted by 4 female and 10 male teachers, the latter mostly professors or teachers of the gymnasium, or clergymen. The institute is divided into 3 classes, of 2 sections each. The number of pupils amounts to from 80 to 100, of whom about one-half are foreigners.

The girls' high-school was founded as a private school in 1852, but passed into the possession of the city of Gotha in the year 1854, as a city-school for the education of young ladies. The school-house is the same building which once belonged to Lucas Cranach. The school consisted originally of four classes, to which were added, in 1853, a fifth, and in 1865, a sixth class. Number of teachers in 1866, 1 director, 4 male, 3 female teachers, and 3 teachers of specialties, drawing, writing, and singing. The number of pupils amounted, in 1866, to 147. The tuition fee is 2 thalers a month.

B. PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

1. *Seminary for male teachers.* — This seminary was founded in 1744, but the programmes of 1784, 1817, 1846 and 1855 became antiquated by the common school law of 1865, and in the course of 1868 the present plan of studies was published. As regards its prosperity, the year 1846 may be taken as the dividing line between the old and new time. Before 1846 there was nothing but sorrow and complaint; since 1846, the sincere endeavor to promote a thorough education of teachers. The annual reports, since 1866, bear testimony that the seminary is equal to all the just demands of our time. The common school law, Art. 30 to 32, regulates the conditions for the admission and the subjects of study at the seminary. The first class contained, according to the last report, (1866–67,) 22, the second class 15, the third class 15; in all, 52 pupils, among whom there were 8 foreigners. The staff of teachers consists of the principal, 4 teachers, and 4 assistants. The salaries are 1,100, 800, 600, 450, &c. thalers. The assistants receive 20 to 25 thalers annually for each daily lesson of one hour. The whole expenses amounted to 4,813 thalers. • The seminary-school, at which 4 teachers and a number of scholars of the upper seminary class are constantly engaged, counts 200 boys.*

2. *The Seminary for female teachers* was founded in 1864, and continued by a teacher, Mr. A. Köhler, as a private institute; connected with it are an institute for the education of teachers of Kindergärten, viz., a Kindergarten organized after Fröbel's principles, and an elementary school for boys and girls of from 6 to 10 years. The first Kindergarten in Gotha was established by Miss Chr. Erdmann in 1844; it passed into the hands of Mrs. Herold, and since 1855 into those of Miss Busch. Mr. Köhler established his Kindergarten in 1851. Köhler's establishment is well patronized, and is a credit to the ability and circumspection of the founder; 61 teachers of Kindergärten and 13 female teachers graduated from this school up to March, 1866; 22 pupils returned to their homes.

3. *The Commercial-school* was established, March 29th, 1818, by the founder of the Gotha Life and Fire Insurance Bank, merchant E. Arnoldi; it is intimately connected with the "Society of Merchants" in Gotha, the "guild-hall," in this manner, that only such well qualified

* For organization and plan of studies, see "The practical working of the common schools, by Kehr. Gotha: E. F. Thienemann, 1868."

young men are allowed admission as have passed an apprenticeship with one of the members of the society. The establishment has at present 8 classes, the highest divided into 2 sections; 64 hours a week are devoted to lessons in all the classes together. The subjects of study are: German, French, English, geography, history, mercantile correspondence, book-keeping, natural sciences, knowledge of natural products, political economy, arithmetic, penmanship, &c. A scientific and mercantile director and 4 teachers are employed. The institute, which began with 54 pupils, instructs at present 110 pupils, of whom the greater number are foreigners. The aggregate of all the pupils since its opening amounts to 1,318, of whom 35 per cent. are natives and 65 per cent. are foreigners.

4. *The School for architects and carpenters* in Gotha, supported by the State, consists at present of 3 classes, 72 pupils, and 7 teachers, (most of them architects.) It had its origin in the Sunday-school founded by Mr. Dürfeld in 1805. This Sunday-school had greatly deteriorated from 1806 to 1811, in consequence of deficient superintendence, when Baron von Frankenberg took charge of it, making at the same time a donation of 500 thalers. The Polytechnic Society, and later Mr. Eberhard, undertook (1821) the superintendence and government of the school. It received a thorough reorganization in 1850, when the government of the State was induced to take charge of it. It was divided into two separate branches: (a,) a supplementary school for mechanics, (*Fortbildung*), an evening and Sunday-school; and (b,) a school for architects and machine-builders. This technological school, intended for the education of good builders, is only open in Winter, and consists of three classes; the aggregate of lessons a week amounts to 132. The studies embrace arithmetic, geometry, free hand-drawing, architectural drawing, architectural mechanics, estimates, modeling, natural philosophy and chemistry, construction of shades, building materials, laws of heating buildings, and book-keeping. The school has greatly gained in reputation in consequence of a more liberal assistance by the State, and the resulting possibility of engaging able and experienced teachers at an adequate salary. The certificate of a graduate entitles him to make contracts for buildings of any kind in the duchy. There are, besides this institute in Gotha, a number of mechanics' schools, *e. g.* in Waltershausen; all receiving encouragement by and assistance from the State.

There are, finally, an *Orphan Asylum* in Friedrichswerth, founded by Mr. O. Chr. Schulz in 1712, and endowed by him with a donation of 24,000 thalers, which renders it possible to engage a teacher for the education and instruction of from 11 to 16 orphans; an *Asylum for morally neglected children*, established in Gotha in 1830, with 26 inmates. There is no asylum for the deaf, dumb and blind as yet; care is taken for the unfortunate of this class partly by appropriations of the government, partly by private legacies in institutions of adjacent States.

COBURG.

THE schools of Coburg have run the same career of prosperity as those of the most progressive States of Northern Germany; very decided changes and improvements having taken place, after long pauses and interruptions, especially in the most recent time. We propose to give a sketch of their present organization and condition, in connection with some retrospective historical glances.

I. HIGHER SCHOOLS.

The city of Coburg possesses two superior establishments for education, viz., the gymnasium and the real-school. Both are State institutes. The gymnasium, founded by duke Casimir at the beginning of the 17th century, had at first a perfect academic construction, consisting of two classes, the publicum and the pedagogium. The intention to convert it into a university was not carried into effect. A third class, *selecta*, was, however, added at the beginning of the third decade of this century. The present organization, since 1859 is after the Prussian model. The *Gymnasium Casimirianum* now consists of 6 classes, thus completely corresponding with the Prussian gymnasium; a description is therefore unnecessary. Number of teachers 12, of pupils 100.

The abundant means with which the institute had been endowed by its liberal founder, were greatly diminished by a faithless steward in the last century. The income amounts at present to 13,815 fl., which are partly obtained from the real estate of the gymnasium, partly from tuition fees (12 to 18 fl. a year,) partly from the State treasury. Like other gymnasia, the Casimirianum has a considerable number of stipends and foundations for poor students.

The real-school was founded (1848) as a city-school, with 6 classes, and organized like a Prussian real-school of the first order. But Latin being not obligatory, it can claim only the privileges of a real-school of the second order, according to Prussian law. It was made a State institute in 1861. The expenses are defrayed partly by considerable contributions from the city, partly by tuition fees, (12 to 18 fl. a year,) partly by additional State assistance. Number of teachers 10, of pupils 224.

Both institutions have received their Prussian organization in consequence of the military convention with Prussia.

The preparatory-school for the gymnasium and real-school consists of four classes, and is a city institute. The pupils pay a very moderate tuition fee. The other city-schools are: a higher class of common schools for boys and girls, which, together with the preparatory-school just mentioned, are placed under the direct superintendence of the city-school director. The burgher-school has 7 classes, in which the boys are taught till they go to their first communion at the completion of their thirteenth year. They pay no tuition fee. There are two girls'-schools, No. I and

No. II, each of 6 classes, under a teacher subordinate to the city-school director. A small tuition fee is paid in school I; the tuition is free in school II. The girls remain till they go to their first communion.

Catholic and Jewish children are, in all these schools, excused from instruction in evangelical doctrines.

There is still a private school to be mentioned, a girls' high-school, under the patronage of the reigning duchess. It has 6 classes, and the pupils remain some years after the first communion.

A school for deaf-mutes was founded in 1835, as a private school, but is now a State institute (since 1858.) The average number of children is 15.

Besides these schools, aiming at a general education, there are two professional, and one supplementary school, (*Fortbildungsschule*.) The Ducal seminary for teachers has for its object the training of pupils, who enter at their seventeenth or eighteenth year, to be teachers of common schools in town and country, during a course of two years. The applicant is considered qualified for admission, when he has obtained the certificate of qualification for class II of the real-school. The graduates are candidates for employment as teachers, but are subjected to a second examination by a special board of examiners, before they can receive a definite appointment. A second professional school, also a State institute, is the School for Architects. It is intended to offer young men the opportunity of obtaining that knowledge and those qualifications which are required to obtain a license as a builder. Its organization is the same as that of schools of the same class in Northern Germany.

The necessity of keeping alive and enlarging the stock of knowledge which boys have acquired in common schools, has led to the establishment of a Sunday-school for boys and young men who have already begun their practical career as apprentices in workshops. This institute is independent, and maintains its existence partly by its own efforts, partly by the public spirit of the citizens. There are about twelve teachers employed, who give instruction in drawing, writing, and arithmetic, to a large number of boys. There is no compulsion to attend this school since the adoption of free trade.

The *Kinder Bewahranstalt*, and the kindergärten, are for the safe keeping and instruction of children who have not yet attained the age for attendance at school. The former is maintained by contributions, and is calculated for the benefit of the poorer classes. The kindergärten is a private institute.

II. COMMON SCHOOLS.

The duchy (1,020 geographical square miles and 50,000 inhabitants,) has 65 schools, with 115 teachers. These schools were attended by 3,518 boys and 3,581 girls in 1864, and by 3,495 boys and 3,621 girls in 1865.

The elementary schools in the smaller towns and in the country are of a good character, and were reorganized in 1858. There is a common school for each district, or for two or more which have combined

for that purpose, which occurs when the school of one district would have less than thirty pupils, or when a district finds it impossible to raise the money for the maintenance of a school. The number of children in one class must not exceed eighty. If this number should be permanently exceeded, a second, even a third teacher must be employed. The children are admitted to school on their sixth year, and leave it on taking the first communion. Children are excused from attending public school only when it can be shown that they receive the proper education by other means. Yet this excuse does not exempt the parents from paying the same taxes that all the members of the district have to pay. The current expenses of the schools and the pension of the *emeriti* must be defrayed by the district, at least so much of it as is not covered by other means. When several districts have joined in one school, they have to pay jointly in proportion to their population. There is, however, this exception, that the district which enjoys the advantage of having the school within its bounds, shall pay one-third more of the cost of building the school-house and keeping it in repair, than the others do. The State pays the expenses of instruction, when a district gives evidence of its inability to raise the necessary amount.

The school is under the direct superintendence of a Board, composed of the local minister, as local inspector, the mayor or bailiff, the teachers, and as many citizens (school-wardens) as there are teachers, and if several districts are consolidated, each will appoint a warden. It is the duty of the Board to enforce the strict execution of the school-law in every particular; the local school-inspector has, besides, charge of the inner organization. The next higher superintendence is vested in the church and school councils; and the minister of State has the superintendence over all.

The teachers must have passed an examination. The first appointment is, as a rule, but for one year. The schoolmasters in small towns, except the head-master, and the schoolmasters in villages in which there is a church or chapel of ease, are bound to perform the duties as sacristan, cantor, or organist, yet are exempt from performing such low work for church or minister as is inconsistent with their rank as teachers. The pension law for teachers is the same as for other State officers. The proceedings against an indolent or worthless teacher are also the same as against public officers under the same circumstances. The pensions for widows and orphans are regulated in the same humane spirit. The annual pension of a schoolmaster's widow is one-sixth, and of each orphan one-twentieth of the salary, respectively, of the late husband. The teacher shall pay into the widows' fund one per cent. of his salary annually.

The organization of the common schools is regulated by the special school-law of Oct. 22d, 1858, in which regulations are made both for instruction and discipline. The subjects of instruction are divided into: (a,) those which are considered indispensably necessary, *i. e.* which decide

the question whether a child may be permitted to leave school or not; and (b,) those which are useful, but which need not be acquired before 14 years of age. Of the first class are: Religion, German, writing, arithmetic, and singing. Of the second class are: History, geography, and other branches of a general character. Gymnastics are obligatory in all schools of the country. The teaching of the less important branches must be suspended in those schools or divisions of schools in which indispensably necessary branches of study have not been effectually taught. The religious instruction in schools or divisions, shall aim especially to teach the most important facts of the history of the Church and of the Reformation; the reading lesson shall be used to impart general, useful knowledge.

The minimum of knowledge, which must have been obtained before children should be permitted to leave the school is this: In religion, such knowledge of the Bible as will enable the children to recite with ease at least fifty appropriate Bible narratives, in a manner which proves that they understand what they recite; they must, further, have an intimate knowledge of the principal facts in all the books of Scripture, and more detailed knowledge of the New Testament, especially of the Gospels; they must have committed to memory at least one hundred Bible verses, and know enough of sacred geography to understand the Bible; they must be able to recite the Biblical authors in their order, and to find easily every quotation. The children are required to know verbatim and to understand the five sections of the catechism. The explanations of the teacher should aim at showing the intimate relation of the truths of salvation, and securing a clear understanding of them in connection with the portions of the Bible which he reads with the children. Every child must know by heart at least fifteen hymns, which are to be selected with reference to the instruction in religion and the church holydays; the children should also receive the proper information about the church-year and the Christian holydays. The whole instruction should be given so as to nourish and strengthen the religious feelings. The least that should be attained in German in every common school is: Correct and fluent reading of print and writing, with the proper intonation and pure pronunciation without dialect; understanding of what has been read; some practice in the expression of thought, both orally and in writing, without serious blunders in orthography. The instruction should include exercises in composition of common and business letters. The children are to be taught to write a plain, neat, pleasing hand in German characters; it is desirable that writing in Roman characters should also be practiced. The minimum in arithmetic is: Skill in solving, by mental calculation, problems within the bounds of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of abstract and concrete whole numbers. The teacher should not proceed to teach fractions or proportions before a considerable skill in the preceding portions has been acquired, and even then but easy problems. Singing is intended

to educate the ear and good taste, and to ennoble social intercourse; it is also, for children of the Evangelical confession, a means to enhance the value of private prayer-meetings and of the public service. The children should learn to sing, without fault, those hymns which they have been made to learn by heart. Each country school should consist of three sections, be they classes in different rooms or subdivisions in the same room, viz., the lowest for children from 6 to 8 years of age, the intermediate for those from 8 to 11 years, and the upper class for those from 11 to 14 years. The law also prescribes a division of the subjects of instruction into three sections. The public schools in small towns must also consist of three sections, viz., the lowest for the first and second year, the intermediate for the third and fourth year, and the upper class till the children go to the first communion. The instruction in the different branches is given more in detail, and is more extended than it can possibly be in common country schools. Geography, history, and natural history are also taught. The boys' and girls' schools, in towns, are generally separate. The law requires great attention to be paid to discipline, and points out the means to maintain it.

The following regulations refer to vacations: Teaching will be suspended, besides Sundays and holydays, at Christmas from December 24th to January 2d; at Easter from Wednesday before Good Friday to Monday after Quasimodogeniti; at Whitsuntide from Saturday to Wednesday; two days at the Kirmes; fourteen days at the time of hay-harvesting; four weeks at the grain harvest. The beginning of the last named vacations will be determined on by the local inspector, after consultation with the teacher.

The law regulates the admission and discharge of pupils; the examinations and inspections of public schools; and the instructions for the teachers, the local inspectors, (clergymen,) and the clerical members of church and school offices, in substantially the same way as in the duchy of Gotha.

DR. EBERHARD.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SAXE-MEININGEN.

HISTORY—GOVERNMENT—AREA—POPULATION.

WHEN duke John of Saxe-Weimar, died, in 1605, he left behind eleven sons, of whom John Ernest succeeded in Weimar, while the other dominions were divided among the remaining ten brothers. These died, however, one after the other, within a short period, with the exception of Ernest the Pious, who died in 1675, leaving seven sons, who again divided the dominions their father had gradually inherited. By this arrangement, duke Bernard became possessed of Meiningen, and entailed it upon his descendants, in direct line, as the duchy of Meiningen. In 1826, the family acquired the former duchy of Hildburghausen, the principality of Saalfeld, and some other territories, in consequence of the death of duke Frederic IV, of Gotha, whose duchy was divided among the three other ducal lines of Coburg, Hildburghausen, and Meiningen. The present duke is George II, who succeeded, on the abdication of his father, duke Bernhard I, in 1866.

The charter of the duchy, of August 23, 1829, provides for a legislative organization, consisting of one Chamber of twenty-four representatives. The nobles elect eight members; the inhabitants of towns eight members, and the rural districts eight members. The ministry is responsible to the Chamber.

The area of Saxe-Meiningen extends over 933 English square miles, with a population of 172,341 in 1861—all Protestants except 872 Roman Catholics, 72 Mennonites, and 1,530 Jews.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The territories which, since 1826, have formed the duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, possessed at that time more or less complete school regulations. Although these regulations had the same origin, viz., the school-laws of Ernest the Pious, (see Gotha,) yet they presented many and great differences. It was, therefore, no easy task to organize and govern the schools of the reconstructed duchy on a uniform plan, but it was, however, successfully done, and in a comparatively short time; the reorganization of the common schools being essentially completed in 1829, and of the higher class of schools in 1836. The first impulse was given by the young duke Bernhard, who was enthusiastically active in elevating and strengthening the intellectual life of his country, as well as the material condition of his subjects. But the agent which prince and government

employed in remodeling the schools was Dr. Ludwig Nonne, counselor of the consistory, who died in 1854; he was the founder of the new organization of the public schools in Meiningen, and remained for years its animating spirit. Nonne was one of the most enthusiastic and most gifted pupils of Pestalozzi, with whom he resided in Iferton for several months in 1809, and whose method of teaching he had thoroughly mastered in all its details. Having returned to his birthplace, Hildburghausen, he became the reformer of the schools of the then independent duchy of that name, where he filled the office of counselor of education. All the teachers and candidates for positions were, by his advice, brought together for a so-called "extraordinary course," in the Spring of 1810, and again in the Autumn of the same year. There sat men of thirty, even of fifty and sixty years, and among them veteran ministers, at the feet of the counselor, who was not then more than twenty-five years of age, to hear his instruction in the theory and practice of the new method of teaching. Most of them were at first inclined to consider the whole an ill-advised joke, yet Nonne understood not only how to familiarize them speedily with the new method, but also to kindle in them a professional spirit. He assembled them around him every evening for cheerful conversation, singing, and music, and succeeded in giving every one the consciousness of the great importance of their profession. Silver-haired men remembered with gladness during years of hardship and sorrow, the "extraordinary course" as the most charming period of their lives. Serviceable teachers having thus been obtained, the reorganization of schools was not delayed for a moment. All the school rooms were fitted up in a few months, and furnished with all necessary materials; a new spirit soon animated the schools, and a lively interest was felt in the whole country for the education of the young and of the people. Nonne did not neglect the seed he had sown, and displayed in these labors no less knowledge and skill than unwearied activity, and succeeded in making the common schools of Hildburghausen, within a short period, the best in that part of Germany.

It was but a well deserved reward for Nonne's exertions in behalf of the schools of his country, that when Hildburghausen was annexed by Meiningen in 1826, the organization of public instruction in the whole duchy, thus enlarged, was at once intrusted to him. His talent for organization found here a new and larger field of labor, to which he applied himself with all his manly vigor and matured experience. There were three seminaries in the different parts of the duchy of Meiningen, viz., in Meiningen, (city,) founded in 1775; in Hildburghausen, founded in 1794, and in Saalfeld, also founded during the last decade of the last century. The last named seminary possessed the least vitality, and being nothing but an adjunct to the lyceum and very indifferently furnished with the apparatus for teaching, it effected very little. The seminary in Meiningen, on the contrary, was flourishing, owing to the exertions of

its two able principals, Walch (till 1792) and Keyper, (till 1826.) and averaged more pupils than the Hildburghausen Institute. The government, however, resolved to discontinue the seminaries both in Saalfeld and in Meiningen, and to make Hildburghausen the only seminary of the country, enlarging it proportionally. Nonne was made its director and charged with its organization. A large building was bought and rebuilt. But Nonne, even before the house was completed, in 1827, called together the preceptors and candidates of the new portions of the duchy, who had not yet received a thorough seminary education, with the pupils of the Meiningen seminary, for an "extraordinary course," and began with more than one hundred scholars the same active, spirited labor as had characterized his former "extraordinary course." As soon as the building was finished, he opened the seminary with sixty pupils, and at the same time began the organization of the public schools in the whole duchy. Every portion of the work was pushed on in the same vigorous manner as it had been in Hildburghausen. Nonne superintended the labors every where in person. Nobody understood better than he how to influence the masses; the districts were, therefore, easily persuaded to make provision for the expenses. A large number of school-houses was built. The towns began to reorganize the public schools and to increase the number of classes; in the country, arrangements were made to keep the schools open during the whole year,—whilst they had, hitherto, particularly in Saalfeld, been open only during the Winter,—and to compel negligent parents to send their children regularly to school. Temporary preceptorates* were changed into fixed and permanent engagements, the boarding around of the teachers at the houses of the parents of the children was more and more discontinued, the salaries raised as much as possible, regular teachers' conferences instituted in all the dioceses, and a new system of teaching, partly the result of those conferences, introduced. Nonne's direct influence on the schools of Meiningen continued till 1836, when he retired from the direction of the seminary, which received another principal; his position in the consistory as school-counselor was also, a little later, transferred to another counselor, whilst he himself retained the position as ecclesiastic counselor in that department. The schools have not remained stationary since that time. The higher class of schools were thoroughly reorganized in 1836 and 1837, whilst the common schools proceeded onward on the path opened by Nonne. The number of schools and classes has greatly increased, the children have no longer to travel great distances, nor the teachers to board with the villagers; supplementary schools (*Fortbildungsschulen*) for those young men who have passed the common schools, have been established, less by legal compulsion than by making the people understand their usefulness. The teachers' salaries have

* Preceptor was, in all Thuringia and Saxony, the name for a teacher who was but provisionally employed, could be dismissed at any time, received less salary than an ordinary teacher, and boarded alternately in the houses of the parents.

repeatedly been raised, with considerable State assistance when the districts were unable to do so; pension funds and widow funds have been established; new text-books and readers have been introduced, and the teachers' conferences have become more frequent and more systematic. There was an additional reform in 1848, when the seat of the consistory was removed from Hildburghausen to Meiningen; it being then constituted a part of the government, as the department of schools and churches.

I. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

1. *Number, School Attendance, Subjects.*

There are 285 common schools, in 277 different places. Of these, there are 19 schools (among them 2 for Jews, in Meiningen and Hildburghausen) in the 17 towns of the duchy, and 266 (among them 6 for Jews) in the country; 106 of the 866 villages of the country have no school of their own, but are consolidated with neighboring villages; on the other hand there are 6 villages having 2 schools each, viz., one for the Christians and one for the Jews. Of the 260 Christian schools, one is for Roman Catholics. The number of classes in town-schools varies: there are 2 classes in Ummerstadt, the school being but a good village-school; Lehesten has 3 classes; Themar, Heldburg, Schalkau, and Kranichfeld, each 4 classes; Wasungen, Römheld, and Gräfenthal, each 5 classes; Camburg, 6 classes; Eisfeld, 7 classes; Hildburghausen, 7 classes, and Pösneck, 9 classes. The schools in Salzungen and Sassenfeld have 10 classes each; Meiningen, 12 classes; Sonneberg, 13 classes, there being parallel classes, so that each child must pass through 8 or 9 classes. The Israelite schools in Meiningen and Hildburghausen employ but 1 teacher each. Among the village schools there is one in Steinach with 6 classes, one in Lauscha with 4 classes, 23 schools with 2 classes each, with as many teachers; 241 village schools have but 1 teacher each.

The number of pupils amounts to 29,250, of whom there are 8,050 in town schools, and 21,200 in village schools. There is, in towns, 1 teacher to 73.08 pupils; in the country, 1 teacher to 71.05 pupils, taking the average; but this ratio varies greatly in the different schools. The rule that a teacher should not instruct more than 100 children, is not yet every where observed; and sometimes there are only 10 or 12 children to one teacher. This crowding of some schools could not be avoided, because there are no means to employ more teachers; and the small number of children in other schools occurs in the mountainous districts, with their small and remote neighborhoods. The eight Israelite schools, except two, have also few pupils, viz., in the aggregate 296, or an average of 37 pupils.

The period during which the children are obliged to attend school is 8 years for boys and girls in the country and for girls in town (from their 6th to their 13th year included;) for boys in town, 9 years, (from their 6th to their 14th year included.) The school-year extends from Easter to Easter. Those children who have completed their 5th year are every year admitted on the 1st of April; those children in the country and

girls in town, who have completed their 13th year, and those boys in town who have completed their 14th year on the 1st of April, are discharged either at Easter or between Easter and Whitsuntide, or at Whitsuntide. A dispensation is required, and rarely granted, in case a child should like to be admitted or discharged at an earlier day. The discharge from school coincides with the admission to the first communion. The attendance at the common school is obligatory, unless a higher school or private instruction be substituted. Absence from school may be unavoidable, excusable, or culpable. When unavoidable, no punishment ensues, nor when excusable, provided the absence be really excused and accepted by the teacher or minister. Every culpable absence during the morning or afternoon lessons, is punished by a fine of two kreutzers, or proportional imprisonment of the culpable parents. The teacher must enter all absences on a printed form, and report every week, or, if necessary, every day to the minister, who will admonish the negligent. The district administration must be informed of ten or more palpable absences of one child during one month, in order to decide what further punishments should be dictated. The result of this strictly enforced rule is this, that there occur no culpable absences at all, or so few that the attendance may be considered as perfectly regular. A few village schools and occasionally a town school, present an unpleasant although a rare occasion for interference.

Instruction is given the whole year through, thirty hours a week; Wednesday and Saturday afternoons being holydays. School is kept in most places during three hours in the morning and three in the afternoon; in some others, four hours in the morning and two in the afternoon. Ten or twelve overcrowded village schools, and a few others whose pupils live at great distances from the school-house, sometimes become "divided" schools, *i. e.* one division of the pupils attends in the morning and the other division in the afternoon, so that each receives only half the usual number of lessons. There are ten weeks holydays, differently distributed over the year in different places, *viz.*, three to five weeks during grain harvest; one to two weeks during hay time; one to two weeks during the gathering in of the potato crop, and one to two weeks during each of the three great church holydays. Though there are different regulations for the different districts, it is strictly enforced that the holydays should not exceed ten weeks taken all together. The Hebrew schools regulate their own holydays upon the same general principle.

The teachers are expected to keep good discipline, which embraces all that refers to order in the school, (punctual attendance, quiet and attention during the lessons, neatness, &c.,) and to every thing which promotes a pious and moral education. The minister, the local school-inspector, and the local and district boards are required to assist him in particular cases. The teacher is not forbidden to inflict corporal punishment, but is instructed to do so only in rare cases, neither too severely, and always in such a manner that decency should not be offended. The teachers who offend against the rules of decency or injure the health of the chil-

dren, are liable to be proceeded against by disciplinary or criminal law. Complaints against a teacher, on account of too severe or indecent punishment of the children, must be brought before the local school-inspector (minister.) The parents are forbidden to call the teacher himself to account, during the lessons in the school-room and in presence of the children, or to disturb the peace of his home. Notice must be given to the inspector and teacher of a school, when a child has been guilty of pilfering, of robbing fields, gardens or forests, with the request that the child should be punished; but in case that the court should consider it necessary to prosecute the offender and to pronounce judgment, the minutes are sent to the consistory, who report to the government, and the punishment is generally commuted. Public dancing places &c., can not be frequented by school children.

The subjects of instruction for all common schools are: Religion, German, (reading and writing,) arithmetic, geography, history, natural history, and singing. In village schools of greater pretensions, and in town schools, drawing and geometrical figures, and in larger burgher-schools, plane geometry, Latin, French, and English are added; the foreign languages are, however, optional. Instruction in gymnastics is not yet generally introduced; it is, however, practiced with great zeal in town schools, and grows more and more in favor with village schools. The instruction in religion is founded on Luther's smaller catechism, the Bible, the hymn book, and a compendium of sacred-history, which books are in the possession of every child. There are Readers for the different classes in German. All text-books, before they can be used in the schools, require the approbation of the consistory, by which provision great uniformity of text-books and their use in all schools is secured. The following apparatus and furniture must be found in every school: At least two blackboards, (one ruled, one not,) with sponge and chalk; a reading machine or large reading charts, stretched on pasteboard; school maps, (at least the two hemispheres, maps of Europe, Germany, duchy of Meiningen, and Palestine;) table and chair for the teacher; benches, with backs of different sizes, for the different divisions of pupils; window-blinds, water-pitcher, &c. Most schools, even in the country, are more liberally and completely provided than is prescribed by law. The location of the school-house must be open and healthy, and removed from the din of the streets; the dwelling of a married teacher must contain at least two rooms that can be heated, two chambers, a kitchen, and cellar; that of an unmarried teacher must contain at least three rooms, viz., a study, a chamber, and a kitchen. The school-room must be square or nearly so, (in the ratio as two to three,) the windows must open toward the South and East, the height $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 11 feet, according to its size. There must be left four square feet of room for each child, after deducting the space for passage, teacher's desk, &c. New school-rooms are to be built so as to accommodate one-fifth more children. A complete realization of the law has not yet been secured in the smaller villages, particularly in the mountainous districts.

The establishment and maintenance of the schools devolve on the districts, but the state allows considerable assistance to such as are without funds for the maintenance of the administration, and where the school taxes levied upon the inhabitants exceed one-half the direct State taxes. About one-fifth of all the school-districts are in this condition, and receive from the government an annual pecuniary assistance amounting to 16,000 florins; the teachers receive, moreover, a part of their salary (in money and provisions) from public charitable foundations and from the income of the crown lands, amounting to 14,000 florins a year.

2. *The Teachers.*

The number of regular common school teachers amounts to 406, of whom 109 teach in town schools and 297 in the villages. There are, besides, in the towns ten assistant male teachers and as many female teachers, the former giving instruction in drawing and writing, the latter in needlework; there are also several country schools in which sewing and knitting are taught by assistant female teachers.

The rectors of burgher-schools, and many of the head masters, are selected from among the candidates for the pulpit, (who must, however, pass an examination before they can be appointed,) and from among the candidates for employment as teachers in real-schools and gymnasia. Among the 406 teachers of the public schools in Meiningen, there are 20 who have been students at the university, of whom 18 have studied theology, and who are obliged to deliver a certain number of sermons. The examination for the appointment as rector is both oral and written; the candidate must also show his ability in teaching, by giving some lessons at the burgher-school in Meiningen, in presence of the ministers of State. The examiners are: The minister of the department of education, the principal of the seminary, and as many teachers of the gymnasium and the real-school in Meiningen as are required for the different subjects to be examined. The written examination consists of an essay on a branch of pedagogy; the oral examination extends over pedagogy, religion, German, mathematics, history, geography, and Latin; the candidate may, besides, be examined in other branches at his option. The examination in religion, (from which, however, candidates of theology are excused,) embraces a knowledge of the Bible, practical teaching of the Bible, the doctrine of faith, ethics, catechetics, geography of Palestine, and sacred history; in pedagogy, the different methods of teaching, and history of pedagogy; in mathematics, as much as is required of a course in the gymnasium; in German, the historic and comparative grammar is excluded; in Latin, so much as is required of a pupil of the *Secunda*; in history and geography, a general knowledge of these branches, and a more detailed acquaintance with popular astronomy.

All common school teachers are educated in the Seminary in Hildburghausen. It was founded in 1794, reorganized in 1827, and has a

principal of its own, since 1836. There are six teachers, of whom two are for music and singing, and three assistant teachers for gymnastics, drawing, and Hebrew language and religion for the Hebrew pupils. The salaries of the teachers are from 700 to 1,000 florins; that of the principal amounts to 1,600 florins. The seminary consists of three classes, through which the pupils pass in three years; but pupils who remain two years in one class, must stay four years. The instruction of the pupils embraces all the branches of popular education, besides pedagogy, theoretical and practical instruction in music, (thorough-bass, piano, organ, violin, &c.,) exercises in church music, horticulture, gymnastics, theoretical instruction in the treatment of deaf-mute children. The Hebrew pupils receive their instruction together with the Christian pupils, except in religion and the Hebrew language, which are taught by the teacher of their school in Hildburghausen, in the institute, whilst the service of the synagogue is taught in the synagogue itself. A practice-school of three classes, and a school for the deaf-mutes, are connected with the seminary, in which the normal pupils practice the art of teaching. The conditions for the admittance to the seminary are: age 16½ to 17 years; healthy body, without conspicuous defects; unexceptionable reputation; good natural abilities; reading and writing; knowledge of the Bible; thorough knowledge and understanding of Luther's catechism, a number of hymns, the most important Bible verses, the principal facts of sacred history; ability to write a German composition—descriptive or narrative—without serious grammatical or orthographical mistakes; etymology and syntax; computation with whole and fractional numbers and simple rule of three; singing and music, knowledge of the notes, and a little practice on the piano and violin. Preparation for admittance to the seminary is left with the candidate, but school-teachers are encouraged by the government to prepare young men, of the right character and aptitude, for the examination by allowing them a remuneration for every successful candidate. The number of pupils at the seminary averages 52: sometimes it has been as high as 60; the minimum has never fallen below 50. Instruction is free, as well as their rooms; they take their meals in town. Government pays 1,200 florins a year in stipends to poor pupils. About 16 pupils graduate every year. The examination, which precedes the graduation, is presided over by the counselor of education, as commissioner of the government; the successful examination qualifies the candidates for a provisional appointment as school-teachers. They may report for a second examination after two years, and, if successful, receive then a fixed appointment. The second examination extends, like the first, over all the branches of instruction, but more with a view to test their practical knowledge as teachers.

The candidates for the appointment as teachers, having left the seminary, remain under the supervision of the *ephori*. They must attend the teachers' conferences, become members of the teachers' reading clubs, and hand in a composition on some subject of pedagogy to the

counselor of education every year, as long as they are not employed in any public school.

The appointment of the candidates, as well as the transfer of teachers from one school to another, is effected either by direct decree of the government department of church and school, or by the ratification of a patron's nomination. The town councils generally are invested with the privilege of nominating candidates for appointment as teachers at the burgher-school of their several towns; the number of patrons in the country (proprietors of manors and certain other private persons) invested with the privilege of nomination is comparatively small. The school-districts have a certain right to refuse a teacher, so far as they are invited to make known any sufficient objection to the appointment of a candidate after his trial teaching, on account of immorality, or want of practical ability. The final decision rests with the government, in case a district should have refused a new teacher in that manner. But such a refusal is rare. The trial of those teachers in villages who have to assist in the church service, consists in singing, playing on the organ; reading a sermon, and catechizing the children in the church; in towns, the same, except the reading of the sermon. The trial of those teachers who have not to assist in the church service, consists in teaching in the school-room. No person except the rectors shall receive an appointment as teacher, who has not been educated at the seminary of the duchy, and, after examination, received the certificate of a candidate for appointment. The deficiency in examined candidates has, however, caused the government, of late, to deviate from this rule, and to appoint young men some months before their final examination, as vicars, and to give them the certificate of qualification for a provisional appointment.

In regard to the official rank of active teachers, there are the following classes: vicars, appointed for the provisional administration of a school; school-assistants, appointed as temporary assistants of aged, yet still active teachers; substitutes, appointed to fill the place of *emeriti*; (these receive a definitive appointment when they possess the personal qualifications and have passed the second examination, but must, however, submit, at the death of the *emeritus*, to be transferred to another school in accordance with their seniority;) school-teachers, of whom several may be employed at the same school that has several classes; lastly, the rectors. The installation of teachers, after their trial, at country-schools, or in those schools in which there is no superintendent, is performed by the local minister; in other towns by the superintendent and the church and school administration. The expenses of a teacher, incurred by his transfer from one school to another, must be paid by the district. The duties of the teachers are either in the school alone, or also in the church. Every teacher is obliged to teach thirty hours a week; every rector, twenty hours. The duties at church consist in reading the church service in place of the minister; assisting the minister as sacristan at baptisms, marriages, burials, at the communion table, &c.; keeping the

duplicate or triplicate of the parish registers; performing the lower class of duties, as ringing the bell, winding up the clock, cleaning the church, and communion service. Most teachers have been, of late, released from these last named duties, or receive an additional compensation. The duty of singing in front of certain houses on New Year's day, has been repealed; but the teachers and a choir of children are required to sing on that day in a limited number of public places in village or town, when requested to do so.

The salaries have been repeatedly increased during the last thirty years, and have been regulated by special laws; the last time in 1862 and 1867. When one is appointed for provisional employment, be it as a vicar, assistant, or teacher, he has a claim to 200 florins, and after his second examination, to 225 florins a year. The minimum, in towns of 3,000 and more inhabitants, is 250 florins. After ten years' service in towns of 5,000 and more inhabitants, the salary of the rector is 800 florins; that of the two lowest teachers, 350 fl.; of the two next higher, 425 fl.; of other teachers, 500 fl.: in towns of from 3,000 to 5,000 inhabitants, that of the rector is 700 fl.; of the two lowest teachers, 350 fl.; of the two next higher, 425 fl.; of the others, 500 fl.: in the other towns, that of the rector is 500 fl.; of the lowest, 300 fl.; of the next higher one, 350 fl.; the others, 400 fl.: in a country school district of 300 and more inhabitants, in schools with one teacher without church duties, 300 fl.; with church service, 350 fl. salary; in schools with two teachers, the second teacher 225 fl., the first teacher 350 fl.; in schools with more than two teachers, the lowest, 225 fl.; the next higher, 275 fl.; each of the others, 350 fl.: in country school districts of less than 300 inhabitants, a teacher without church service has 225 fl., and with church duties, 275 fl. salary.

The salary of a teacher in a town, who has at the same time the duties of cantor, organist, or sacristan, must amount at least to 350 florins. Those teachers of town schools, who have studied at a university, and have passed the State examination, shall receive, in towns of 5,000 and more inhabitants, 700 fl.; in towns of from 3,000 to 5,000 inhabitants, 600 fl., and in other towns, at least 500 fl. salary, the perquisites of their ecclesiastic duties included.

Every teacher whose salary does not exceed 700 florins, receives, after twenty-five years' service, an addition of 25 fl., and after thirty years' service, an addition of 35 fl. from the State treasury. Every teacher must take part of his salary in kind, viz., $12\frac{1}{2}$ Berlin bushels of grains, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ cords of soft or 3 cords of hard wood; but, often, the market price is paid, both for grains and wood, though they are in the estimate put down at a so-called normal price, which happens to be at present about half of the market price. The dwelling is estimated to be equal, in villages, to from 5 to 15 florins; in towns, 6 per cent. of the salary at the highest. When, as will happen in towns, there are no dwelling-houses in connection with the school, an indemnification equal to 5 per cent. of

the salary is paid to the teacher. The district must also furnish three to four cords of wood for heating the school-rooms.

It should be observed that the above statements give the minimum of salary; that the estimates for what is furnished in kind, and of the perquisites, are in general less than what they really amount to, and that many of the salaries greatly exceed the minimum. It may be taken for granted, that the incomes of one-half of the teachers range from 400 florins up to 1,000 florins; of one-quarter, between 300 and 400 florins, and of the other quarter between 200 and 300 florins. Yet it has become evident of late that the salaries are too small, and that another increase will be necessary, if the duchy of Meiningen intends to induce the candidates for appointment and the teachers to stay in the country, because many, in spite of their attachment to their native country, would prefer to embrace the opportunity offered to them, to obtain better compensation for their labor, in other parts of Germany.

The tuition fees, when they are not altogether repealed, are included in the estimate of teachers' salary; it is, however, not collected by them, but by the treasurer of the district, and from that money the salary is paid, either monthly or quarterly. The districts are responsible for the payment.

The pensions of the *emeriti* are in proportion to their salaries, respectively to the size of the place where the school is kept. The pension shall in no case be less than two-thirds of the salary. The following minima are fixed upon for pensions: In towns of more than 4,000 inhabitants, for teachers of the two lowest salaries, 300 fl.; for the others, 350 fl.; in the other towns, for teachers of the two lowest salaries, 250 fl.; for the others, 300 fl.; in the country districts of 300 and more inhabitants, for those who taught in undivided schools, and did, besides, church service, 275 fl.; for those who did no church service, 250 fl.; for those who taught in divided schools as second teachers, 200 fl.; the others, 275 fl.; and in districts with less than 300 inhabitants, for those teachers who did church service, 225 fl.; who did not, 200 fl.

A teacher who is prosecuted by the courts of justice, and therefore suspended, must lose one-half of his salary, to pay the vicar.

When a discharge or a transfer from one place to another occurs, the different parts of the salary, except the perquisites, shall be divided in proportion to the time served. Where the vacancy was caused by death, the perquisites shall be paid to the heirs of the deceased; if there be none, to the person who performs the duties. Wood is given in advance from Michaelmas to Michaelmas, counting two-thirds for the Winter and one third for the Summer. The remuneration for singing at Christmas and New Year shall be divided, after deducting one-fifth of the whole amount, according to the length of time served.

The heirs of a deceased teacher are allowed the salary for two or three months, and the use of the dwelling for the same time, after the death of the teacher; this "time of grace" is, however, not allowed, when there are

no direct heirs, or when the children are already provided for. There is, besides, a widows' fund for the assistance of the widow and children under age or not provided for. All teachers of the duchy, who are permanently engaged at any common school, must be members of the teachers' fund association. They pay three florins respectively, three and a-half florins registration fee, and are annually assessed the same amount, according as their salary is less than 450 fl., or 450 fl. and more. The churches also contribute, and the State treasury pays annually about 1,400 fl. The pensions of widows and children respectively amount to 50 and 75 fl. a year, according to the assessment of the deceased. A teacher's widow and orphans receive, moreover, during the three years subsequent to the death of the teacher, an annual gratuity of 40 fl., called "the widow's corn," because originally bread-corn was given, which is now fixed in money value. To secure this gratuity for his wife, the teacher must pay three florins a year into the widows' fund.

The teachers are not servants of the State, in the proper sense of the word, but enjoy many of the privileges of employees. They are exempt from paying taxes on their profession or to the district; they have the privileges of citizens at the place where they are regularly employed, but must purchase the right for the use of the district commons. They require a license of the consistory to marry, to be agents, to accept an office in the district, or to carry on any extra occupation.

No teacher is permitted to be absent from a lesson without special permission of the minister, or superintendent, nor may he neglect any of his church duties. The minister may give him a furlough of three days during school-time, the superintendent one week, but during the vacation only. The minister may extend the furlough to one week; the superintendent to the duration of the vacation. A longer furlough can only be granted by the government. The rectors in towns may give furloughs like the ministers in the country.

There are teachers' associations and reading clubs in each diocese, under the charge of the superintendent. The associations elect their officers, and meet, during Summer, every month, to hold a conference, for which no particulars are prescribed, but about which the superintendents report every year, submitting the minutes to the consistory. There are in the dioceses, from time to time, conferences of the ministers and teachers combined; and there is a general conference of the teachers in the duchy once a year. The conferences, encouraged as much as possible by the consistory, have very beneficially inspired a feeling of good fellowship and cheerfulness in performing the duties; and especially have the combined conferences of ministers and teachers done much for the establishment of good feeling between these two classes of society, which are naturally so nearly related to each other, and yet frequently so hostile.*

* "The school-archives of the duchy of Meiningen," may be considered an offspring of the teachers' conferences and associations; a teacher, Mr. Hartmann, of Salzungen, is its editor, who

3. *Inspection of Schools, and School Authorities.*

The supreme authority for the schools of the whole country, particularly for the common schools, is the ministry and department of church-and-school affairs in Meiningen, which has taken the place of the consistory in Hildburghausen, discontinued in 1848. The department consists of a counselor of State as chairman, with two ecclesiastical and two lay-counselors. One of the latter, the scholastic counselor, reports on all affairs of the schools and is superintendent of all the schools and teachers, for which purpose he is instructed to visit all the schools of the country once in every three years, to obtain personal knowledge of their condition, to correct great deficiencies, and to see that the school law and instructions are properly attended to. The resolutions of the department are adopted by a majority. All appointments, and the approvals of the nominations of patrons, proceed from it with this limitation, that the appointments of rectors and first class teachers of burgher-schools must be presented to the duke for his approval. It votes the regular aid of the government for schools and teachers as fixed by the law, and fixes the salaries of teachers, according to the existing instructions; it audits the estimates of salaries; superintends and directs, with the assistance of an architect appointed by the ministry, the building of school-houses and the arrangement of schoolrooms; orders the pensioning of teachers; directs the discipline, having the power of imposing fines up to fifty thalers, and takes the proper preliminary steps for the legal proceedings for offenses that are punished by removal. Revision of the decision of the department is obtained by appeal to the ministry. The appointment of teachers of the seminary, of the gymnasium, and the real-school, is by decree of the duke.

There are in the different dioceses, under the superintendence and direction of this department, two subordinate authorities, viz., (1,) the church and school-boards, and (2,) the *ephori*, or superintendents. The church and school-boards are composed of the *ephori* of the diocese and the officers of the administration, (mayor in large towns, and bailiff.) The senior member is chairman. The duties embrace particularly the external affairs, viz., accounts, buildings, salary, filling of vacancies, all those affairs which require the coöperation of the civil authority, and which require a judicial treatment, when the spiritual and personal influence of the *ephori* has proved to be without effect. The *ephor* or superintendent is the proper authority in all internal affairs, such as the compass and method of instruction, the moral conduct of candidates and teachers, conferences, &c. The church and school-board is also the proper authority for all non-evangelical schools and teachers in this manner, that its secular member puts himself in communication with the Bavarian Catholic dean, who, by authority of the bishop of Würz-

publishes it twice a month; he gives publicity to the more interesting and valuable results of the conferences and to other communications in relation to teaching.

burg, superintends the church and school affairs of the Catholics in Meiningen, and with the Jewish rabbi of the country for the Hebrew school. The local church and school boards superintend the towns and villages; the local minister is chairman, if no *ephor* have his seat in that place; otherwise the *ephor*. The other members are: the teacher, or when there are several teachers at one school, the head teacher or rector, the mayor, the bailiff, the secretary of the church and school treasurer, and one or two school wardens or school commissioners, elected by the district. The ministers are, moreover, the local school inspectors; it is, therefore, their duty to visit frequently the schools of their parish.

There are three kinds of school-visitations and school examinations, viz., (1.) the Spring examination, held by the local minister at the close of the school year, (Easter,) after which those children are discharged from school who are to be admitted to the first communion; (2.) the visitation in Summer by the *ephor*, and, when connected with the church visitation, assisted by the lay member of the church and school board; (3.) the visitation by the counselor of schools every three to five years. The two first named examinations are held at the same time, when the *ephor* resides at the place. Reports must be made of every visitation: by the ministers respecting the Spring examination to the *ephori*; by the *ephori* to the church and school board; by the ecclesiastic counselor to the ministry, department of church and school affairs. The reports of the *ephori* must contain the usual statistics of attendance, number and distribution of daily lessons, absences, the examination papers, &c.

General Remarks.

The common schools in Meiningen attained a good reputation long ago, which they still enjoy, and are continually progressive and prosperous. The demands of the age, that the schools should be emancipated from the supervision of the clergy, that the teachers should be taught foreign languages at the seminary, that denominational instruction in religion in the district schools should be discontinued, &c., have received less attention in Meiningen than in Gotha. The government is in this respect very conservative, for which it is blamed by many. The close union of church and school has been preserved, the minister is the local inspector, the Lutheran catechism serves in all classes as the foundation of the instruction in the principles of faith and morals, and instruction in Latin, French, and English, remains excluded from the seminary. The reading of and commenting on the German classic authors, is limited in the seminary to comparatively few authors and to certain portions of their works. In general the principle is adhered to, that it is better to give the future teachers of the people a firm and thorough knowledge of a few things, than to give them a taste of many, without thoroughness in any. It is thought to be the principal problem to be solved by common schools, to educate in Christian morals and in Christian faith, and to impart such knowledge and abilities as are of paramount importance in the life of citizens and peasants. Sacred history, the principles of faith and ethics,

reading, writing, and arithmetic, are therefore the principal subjects of school teaching, to which is added more or less extended instruction in geography, history, and natural sciences. But within this narrow boundary, excellent effects have been, in general, produced. Not a single child, capable of receiving instruction, is left without this blessing, and the number of those who, in consequence of irregular attendance at school and neglect at home, are unable to read and to write, is exceedingly small, whilst the majority of children enter their callings in life well instructed and capable of expressing themselves well, both orally and in writing. An object of particular care in the education of the pupils at the teachers' seminary, is singing, music, and the formation and preservation of good church choirs. The people in general have great love and talent for vocal and instrumental music; and both are fostered and promoted by the school. The church choir at Salzungen has gained a high reputation far beyond the boundaries of the duchy, and a director of church music has been officially engaged to organize and superintend similar choirs all over the country, and he does so very successfully. There is no general school law, yet the common schools, through successive regulations, and good school habits among the people, constitute a well regulated and healthy organism. Of course, great deficiencies still exist; such as too early admission to school, and the discharge from school attendance on the completion of their thirteenth year. The qualifications of candidates for the seminary are not satisfactory; and the salaries, in spite of a material improvement of late, are not sufficient, when the enhanced prices of living are considered.

SUPPLEMENTARY AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

The supplementary schools (*Fortbildungsschulen*) are based on the public schools; they teach young men till their eighteenth year. There exist institutions of this kind for both sexes; those for girls are, however, less in number than those for young men. Most of them are open only in Winter, some of them all the year round, at such days as are thought most convenient. The ministers and teachers are instructed to take an active interest in them. The instruction in these schools is intended to keep alive, impress more firmly, and enlarge the knowledge and the abilities attained in the common schools, and to teach particularly what is necessary for practical life, viz., reading, writing, arithmetic, German composition, geography, history, elements of geometry, and drawing, especially in towns. The districts allow the teachers for such instruction, a remuneration, the amount of which is fixed by agreement, and charge themselves to furnish light and fuel for the school-rooms. There is no compulsion to attend these schools, the government being disinclined to extend the obligation to attend at school beyond the thirteenth or fourteenth year, in spite of several petitions to that effect. It does not wish to interfere with the liberty of the family, in regard to the education of the children, more than it has done, the less so as there are not every

where able teachers and means for the maintenance of such schools at its disposal. The class schools, it is argued, should find their support in the conviction of their usefulness, and receive mainly the moral support of the government. It is, therefore, left to the districts and to corporations to regulate the attendance. In most of the towns, and in wealthy villages, these schools prosper.

There exist, beside the public schools, several institutions of education and instruction for special classes of children. An institute for deaf-mutes is attached to the seminary at Hildburghausen. The instruction is free, and is given in a separate portion of the seminary by a special teacher, educated to teach this class of children, and by the senior pupils of the seminary, who, in this way, and by theoretical instruction, learn the treatment of deaf-mutes. The children board in town, in families; and the expenses, (45 fl. for a child, per annum,) are covered by the parents, the district, and the State, which latter expends every year about 400 fl. for this purpose. The number of pupils varies between fifteen and twenty.

An industrial school, for destitute children of the town and the former duchy of Hildburghausen, and occasionally of other portions of the country, was founded by a ladies' association in Hildburghausen, in 1819, and assisted by the ducal family. The institution possesses a house and garden of its own, and feeds and trains on an average twenty children, who receive their book instruction in the town school.

The home for neglected children, near Hermansfeld, not far from Meiningen, is a foundation of Mr. Schneider, professor at the gymnasium in 1862, from his own private means and some charitable contributions; it receives State assistance to the amount of 600 fl. a year. The institution has a farm of considerable extent, and gives food, industrial occupation, and primary instruction to twenty or twenty-four boys. Its object is to make good men and useful members of society out of neglected children, or such as are exposed to neglect. The children, to be admitted, must not be less than 6, and not more than 12 years old; and the annual expense per child is about 40 florins. It is managed by a single family. The "father" teaches in all subjects of instruction, superintends the household, assisted by his wife and the inmates. The founder has reserved the supervision to himself.

There are three public asylums for the education of poor orphans, supported by the Highland, the Lowland, and the Hildburghausen funds, and from 6,000 to 7,000 florins every year are expended; several private institutes, as the Maria foundation, founded by duchess Maria in 1850, on the day of her silver wedding, with a capital of 3,000 fl.; the Hund von Wenkheim and von Romrodt foundation in Schweina, with an annual income of 210 fl.; the foundation for orphans of public school teachers, established about ten years ago by the voluntary contributions of the public school teachers, with an annual income of 50 to 60 florins, &c.

In all the towns, and in several large villages, there are Kindergärten

established after Fröbel's system, for the proper occupation of children below the age to be admitted to a public school. The school authorities exercise the right of superintendence; but, in every other respect, the establishments are private.

There are comparatively few boarding-schools and institutes for the education of children of the higher classes in the duchy; even many larger towns, like Sonneberg, Saalfeld, &c., have none; all the children attend the public burgher-schools. The boarding-school in Oberneusulza is for boys of wealthy families. There are four private schools in the city of Meiningen, two for girls of the higher class of society, and two for boys and girls, in which the boys, however, rarely remain longer than till they are sufficiently educated for admittance to the gymnasium or the real-school. A similar institute for children of both sexes exists in Hildburghausen. In Salzungen and Sonneberg is a real-class attached to the burgher-school, and in Saalfeld and Pössnick a girls' school of higher grade, in which, besides the ordinary instruction of common schools, lessons are given in the foreign languages, as well as in history, geography, geometry, &c. These classes and several of the private institutes mentioned before, are only preparatory to the higher public schools.

II. THE HIGH-SCHOOLS.

The duchy maintained, in 1826, besides the three seminaries mentioned before, two gymnasia, (at Meiningen and at Hildburghausen,) the lyceum at Saalfeld, the academy for the culture of forests at Dreissigacker, and a share in the gymnasium at Schleussingen, where the governments of Prussia and Meiningen exercised, jointly, the right as patrons. These institutes were unable to produce much effect on account of want of means, of teachers, and of a proper organization; their number was, moreover, out of proportion to the wants of the country. The necessity arose, therefore, of reducing their number, to endow the remaining schools the more liberally, and to organize them the better. The first step was to consolidate the three seminaries into one at Hildburghausen, in 1827; a proper organization of the gymnasia was effected in 1827, when the lyceum at Saalfeld* was abolished, and the gymnasia of Meiningen and Hildburghausen reconstructed. The interest of Meiningen in the gymnasium in Schleussingen ceased a few years later, (in 1841,) and the academy for the culture of forests was dissolved in 1843, this institute having, after a short period of success, shown signs of decrepitude.†

* The lyceum at Saalfeld dates its existence from the age of the Reformation. Melancthon himself drew up the plan in 1551; it had then a rector and three teachers, but retained its connection with the bürger-school. The number of teachers increased afterwards to eight. Duke John Ernest founded, toward the end of the seventeenth century, free board for twelve pupils of the lyceum. The lyceum was connected, a century later, with a seminary, which was, however, transferred to Hildburghausen in 1826. Thus it became extinct after an existence of two hundred and eighty-six years, and a real-school with a progymnasium took its place.

† Duke George of Meiningen founded, in 1801, in his hunting castle at Drysigacker, near Meiningen, the Institute for the Culture of Forests, which soon became celebrated far and near, under

The duchy possesses now, beside the seminary for teachers, two gymnasia, at Meiningen and Hildburghausen, and two real-schools, at Meiningen and Saalfeld.

The *Gymnasium Bernhardinum* at Meiningen had its origin in a Latin class of a town school, which had, in 1544, already three teachers, of whom two were graduates of a university, and which Bernhard I, first duke of Meiningen, changed into the *Lyceum illustra*. There having been no means of establishing the highest class of the lyceum, (Prima,) a rich citizen of Meiningen, of the name of Henfling, gave a sufficient legacy (1730) to do so. The lyceum or gymnasium remained, however, so connected with the burgher-school, that its three classes formed the continuation of the latter. Both institutes were perfectly separated in 1835 and 1836, when a thorough reorganization took place, having received, in 1821, a new school-house. The gymnasium (now independent,) formed six classes, doubled the number of its teachers, and made such changes in its organization as to insure its successful existence. It has flourished ever since. The number of pupils has varied between 150 and 200, and has even exceeded 200. The institute is endowed with some stipends for poor but deserving pupils.

The gymnasium at Hildburghausen was also originally a town school, (then called "counsel-school,") which had its first Protestant principal in 1535, and was divided into a boys' and into a girls' school, (Latin and German school.) The Latin school consisted of Prima, Secunda, Tertia, and Quarta; the boys remained till their 16th year. It was succeeded, from 1714 to 1729, by the *Gymnasium Academicum*, constructed on a magnificent scale; which employed nine professors, and divided its pupils into two classes, viz., *auditores publici* and *paedagogista*. Most of the former were noblemen, and enjoyed in every respect favors which were denied to the latter. The subjects taught were those of a university, and included the liberal arts. It had altogether a courtly character, aimed too far, and was too expensive for the little country. It could, therefore, exist no longer than a quarter of a century. The "counsel-school" was then again the only school of the town, but did

the direction of the naturalist Bechstein. He made it an Academy in 1803, and connected with it the Gotha-Meiningen Society for the Promotion of Forest Culture and the Science of the Chase, and in 1808 added also an Institute for Political Economy. The Academy owned, beside the castle, (in which there were rooms for recitations, for a teacher, and for the apparatus,) a large mansion, for some time the dwelling of the director. The other teachers and the pupils of the Academy lived, some in the village, some in Meiningen. The Academy consisted of three classes, employed eight teachers, and had, for practical instruction, the use of a forest covering 5,042 acres; also, rich collections for instruction in natural history, natural philosophy, &c., and a valuable collection of optical instruments. Thus liberally endowed, enjoying the instruction of the most celebrated teachers, and well located, the Institute became the point of attraction for young men of all parts of Germany, and even of foreign countries. It became the centre of this branch of instruction, and had a glorious, though unfortunately very short period in which it flourished. Bechstein's death was an irreparable loss (1822.) The mixture of different objects, which at that time and later were introduced, could not be in harmony with the demands of modern times, without a new organization. Thus the dissolving of the Academy was a necessity. Its heir was the Real-school of Meiningen.

not offer the facilities necessary to qualify young men for the studies at a university. Duke Frederic, to remedy this deficiency, established a new gymnasium in 1812, and placed it in such connection with the town school, that the pupils of the highest class of the latter could be transferred to the gymnasium, which had at first two; later, three classes. It was, like that in Meiningen, disconnected from the burgher-school in 1836, was similarly reorganized and carried on with new teachers and increased means. It has been successful. The number of pupils has varied between 100 and 130, and increases steadily.

The organization of these two gymnasia is founded on the ducal decree of November 24th, 1836, entitled "Organization of the two Gymnasia of the country in Meiningen and Hildburghausen." It is the work of Mr. Seebeck, counselor of state and curator of the University of Jena, who was at that time principal of the Gymnasium of Meiningen, but soon after was intrusted with the education of the hereditary prince, the present duke. It is based on the regulations for the Prussian gymnasia, as they were in force till 1830, and gives very minute instructions about the interior organization of the institutes as well as about their external arrangements, in eight sections, viz., (1,) place; (2,) instruction for the principal and the teachers; (3,) the teachers' conferences; (4,) the examinations; (5,) the reports on the progress of the pupils every six months, and certificates of graduation; (6,) the school programme; (7,) vacations; (8,) funds of the gymnasia and their administration. The essential portions of this organization are still in force, though a few changes have been thought necessary in the plan of instruction and examination of the candidates for graduation. Its general character will be understood by the following remarks: Each gymnasium consists of six classes, from Sexta to Prima; the course extends over nine years, Quarta, Secunda, and Prima, consuming each two years; the other classes one year each. Upper and lower Quarta are separate in some branches, and in Meiningen in all branches except in religion and history. Subjects of instruction are: Religion, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, mathematics, history, geography, natural sciences, penmanship, drawing, singing, gymnastics. The English language is also taught, but must be paid for, extra. The number of weekly lessons of one hour each, including gymnastics, is 33 to 34. The boy who applies for admission must be in his tenth year. It is not required, but desirable, that he should know the five declensions and the auxiliary verb *esse*; yet it is distinctly prescribed that his knowledge of Latin is of less importance than a general development of physical and intellectual powers, corresponding with his age and common school education. The lessons in French begin in Quinta; those in Greek in upper Quarta; of Hebrew (for the future students of theology and philosophy) in Secunda. Pupils may be excused from the instruction in drawing and singing, when they show little talent for these branches of instruction. The more advanced pupils of Prima, who are able to pursue independently scientific studies

at home, may be excused from certain class exercises. Those pupils of the higher classes, who do not intend to graduate in the regular course, may be excused from the Greek studies during the last year of their attending the school, if they wish to qualify themselves for their future career by private lessons. Only those who produce a surgeon's certificate, or show evident defects, may be excused from gymnastics. The instruction in religion, which should be given, if possible, by a teacher who has studied theology, should aim to improve the morals, and should also be didactic in the manner of treating its positive doctrines. It shall embrace sacred history, reading of the Bible—in Prima in its original text—Luther's smaller catechism, and connected with it a course of the doctrines of faith and Christian morals; lastly, the most important facts of the history of the Church. Latin shall be taught in the four lower classes during ten hours each; in the higher classes, eight each; Greek in upper Quarta, Tertia, and Secunda, six each; in Prima five; mathematics, in Prima, three; in the other classes, four hours a week. Permission to be examined for graduation is given to those who have been two years in Prima and have entered their nineteenth year. The examination embraces: German, Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, history, and geography, and for the future students of theology or philology, Hebrew. The examination is both oral and written, in Latin, Greek, and mathematics; written in German (composition) and French, and oral in history and geography. The board consists of examiners and censors. Examiners, who examine the candidates, are those teachers, (the principal included,) who have given the instruction in the respective branches in Prima during the last year; censors, who decide the result of the examination by a majority vote, are the principals of the two gymnasia, and at least three experts, appointed by the minister of State for that particular examination; one of them shall always be the ecclesiastic counselor, who presides over the whole transactions; and one a teacher of the gymnasium. The presiding member has the casting vote. The result shall be determined both by the marks which the different examinations have received, and the certificates of the teachers of the candidate. The written examinations must be marked with one of the following predicates: Not satisfactory, scarcely satisfactory, satisfactory, good, very good, and distinguished. The same predicates must be used in the minutes of the oral examination in each subject. Deficiency in one branch may be compensated by a good mark in another; so may deficiency in mathematics be compensated by distinguished knowledge in classics, and vice versa. The tuition fee amounts in the three lower classes which constitute the so-called progymnasium, to 16 florins each; in Tertia, to 18 fl.; in Secunda, to 24 fl., and in Prima, to 32 fl.; there are, besides, to be paid an entrance and discharge fee of 4 fl. each. These charges are canceled altogether, or reduced, when the pupil is poor. There are employed at each gymnasium, 1 principal, 7 teachers, and several assistants. The salaries vary from 650 to 1,750 fl.; the expenses for

the two gymnasia amount to about 20,000 fl., of which the greater part is paid by the government.

The original intention, when the organization of the higher institutes of instruction was entered upon, was this, that there should be but one *real school*, viz., the one in Saalfeld. This school was organized (1836) in three classes, and placed in connection with a progymnasium, in which the pupils could obtain the knowledge necessary for the Tertia of a gymnasium. The institute was established in the rooms and by the funds of the former lyceum, receiving, besides, additional assistance from the State, and it so flourished as to make it necessary to attach two more elementary classes to it. This is its present condition; it counts 140 to 160 pupils, who are taught by the principal, (who is at the same time rector of the town schools in Saalfeld,) 6 teachers, and some assistants. The *real-school* bears the same character as the Prussian real-school of the second order. Soon after the opening of the Saalfeld institute, the necessity for a second real-school became evident. The duchy of Meiningen extends in length about twenty geographical miles, with but very little breadth, and is divided by the mountain ridge of the Thuringian forest into two unequal parts, a large western and a small eastern part, which show many differences, both in regard to geographical position and the occupation and habits of the inhabitants. The real-school of Saalfeld lies in the eastern part, and answered all the purposes as far as this part was concerned, but it is too remote from the larger, western part of the country. Duke Bernhard, who had promptly perceived this, established, therefore, at his own expense, a second real-school at Meiningen in 1837, which was made a State institute in 1842. Endowed with the proper means by the State, and enriched by the collections of the former academy at Dreissigacker, the school prospered, soon having the same number of pupils as Saalfeld, and was enabled to take even one step further in the extent of instruction than that institute. A common real-school regulation was now given for both institutes, ("Regulations for the real-schools in Meiningen and Saalfeld,") which received the approbation of the duke, and became the law, May 11th, 1842. These rules and regulations were drawn up by Dr. Kiessling, counselor of schools and the consistory, (at that time principal of the Joachimthal gymnasium in Berlin,) after the model of the regulations for gymnasia, with due regard to the peculiarities of the real-school and its wants. It contains four sections, viz., division of the school, plan of instruction, duties of teachers and scholars, and regulations concerning the examinations. The *real-school* is intended to prepare young men for such professions in practical life as presuppose a general intellectual development, principally based on the study of mathematics, natural sciences, and modern languages. The course of studies encompasses: Religion, German, English, French, and Latin languages, mathematics, (pure and applied,) natural history, natural philosophy, chemistry, history, geography, penmanship, drawing, (linear and free hand,) modeling,

singing, and gymnastics. The complete course is divided into three sections of two years each. The lowest section, which is divided into the two classes, *Tertia* and *Secunda*, is the preparatory department, and is intended for those pupils who, having obtained an education somewhat higher than that offered by a burgher-school, begin at once their practical career in life. The intermediate section (*Prima*,) and highest section (*Selecta*,) aim, both in regard to selection of studies and their treatment, to prepare pupils for those positions in life that require a higher technological education, as well as for admission to an academy or high class professional school. *Selecta* is also intended to offer a fair opportunity to those who have completely finished the course of studies at a gymnasium, for obtaining a more extensive knowledge in mathematics and in natural sciences—an opportunity which has very rarely been taken advantage of.

The organization, as given above, has only been carried out in the real-school at Meiningen. That of Saalfeld has no *Selecta*, but it has two more preparatory classes, *Quarta* and *Quinta*, to which boys nine years old are admitted, whilst at Meiningen none younger than twelve years may be admitted. The studies and objects are at both institutes the same in *Tertia*, *Secunda*, and *Prima*. The *Selecta* at Meiningen encroaches, in the selection of studies, upon the higher professional schools, although a general scientific education is steadily kept in view. Thus in mathematics not only the elementary parts are taught, but also analysis, calculus, analytical geometry, &c. Natural philosophy, too, is taught throughout in connection with mathematics. The Meiningen real-school goes, therefore, even beyond the Prussian real-schools of the first order in some respects, though it has in general the same standard. The Saalfeld real-school, having, in its three classes, *Tertia*, *Quarta*, and *Quinta*, a progymnasium attached to it, requires more lessons in Latin than that of Meiningen, where only three hours a week in each class are devoted to this study. The pupils of the real-school may be excused from the study of French and English, and also of Latin, if they do not intend to enter the service of the State.

The examinations for graduation from the real-schools are two-fold, one of the first and one of the second degree, according as the candidate has passed *Selecta* or *Prima*. To the examination of the second degree all those pupils of *Prima* are subject, who have been two years in that class, and who intend to compete for employment in the forest service, or to devote themselves to veterinary science, or find employment as surveyors, or compete for a transfer to *Selecta*. To the examination of the first degree are those young men admitted who have been two years in *Selecta*, and who wish to obtain employment in the departments of the treasury, of architecture, of mining, of political economy or of the higher forest service; and those who wish to graduate for a university, for the purpose of studying there mathematics, modern languages, or natural sciences.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN GRAND DUCHY OF SAXE-WEIMAR.

HISTORY—GOVERNMENT—POPULATION—TERRITORY.

JOHN FREDERIC of Saxony kept together all the districts ceded to him, but soon after his death (1554) his three sons divided them; which example being frequently followed by their descendants, the other Saxon duchies—Gotha, Altenburg, etc.—came into existence.

Weimar was inherited by duke John, who died in 1605. In 1690 the reigning dukes of Weimar inherited Jena, with its dependencies, and in 1741 the dominion of Eisenach. In 1806, after the battle of Jena, duke Charles Augustus joined the Rhenish Confederation, but in 1813 the allied powers. By the Congress of Vienna some districts of the kingdom of Saxony, the electorate of Hesse, etc., (661 square miles, with 77,000 inhabitants,) was annexed to the duchy, which was at the same time raised to the dignity of a grand-duchy. Charles Augustus died in 1828, and was succeeded by his son Charles Frederic. The present grand-duke is Charles Alexander, who succeeded his father, July 8th, 1853.

The legislative power is vested in a House of Parliament, represented by one Chamber, and is composed of thirty-one members, of whom ten are chosen by the proprietors of noble estates; ten by the towns; ten others by the inhabitants of rural districts, and one by the Senate of the University of Jena. The president of the Chamber is an Earl-Marshal, elected by the deputies of the nobility, who is assisted by two vice-presidents. For each member an alternate is elected. The ministry, acting under the orders of the grand-duke, is responsible to the representatives of the country.

The grand-duchy of Saxe-Weimar is divided into three districts—Weimar, Eisenach, and Neustadt; and has an area of 1,421 English square miles, with (in 1861,) 273,252 inhabitants, (262,272 Protestants, 9,824 Roman Catholics, 57 Greek Catholics, 5 Mennonites, 6 of other Christian sects, 1,088 Jews.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

There are in the duchy 653 Protestant, 21 Catholic, and 4 Israelite schools, in all 678, which are divided into 24 school-superintendent districts, each containing about 30 schools. Most of them are attended by less than 80 children, a few by more than 100; an additional teacher is employed whenever the number of pupils exceeds 80. A new district-school is only allowed when there are no means to enlarge the

school-room in proportion to the number of children, or to employ a second teacher. There are no so-called Summer schools. The subjects of instruction are: Sacred history, religion, Bible-reading; reading, with remarks on the principal rules of grammar, composition, arithmetic, geography, history, natural history, with remarks on agriculture and housekeeping; writing, singing, and gymnastics. The weekly number of lessons amounts to from 28 to 32 for each teacher, according to necessity; the school-districts collect the tuition fee, which must not amount to more than 15 silbergroschen a year for one, 25 silbergroschen for two, and 1 thaler for three or more children of the same family. The tuition fees in larger towns are higher.

The subjects of the instruction in common schools are: Religion, knowledge of sacred history and of the geography of Palestine; the most remarkable events of the history of the Christian church; more detailed history of the Reformation; reading of some books of the New Testament; learning by heart of a reasonable number of Bible verses and hymns; committing to memory, understandingly, the principal parts of Luther's smaller catechism. German: fluent reading, with correct intonation, of German and Latin print; knowledge of the parts of speech, and of the parts of a simple and complex sentence; ability to recite and write the general contents of a short composition read to them; simple letters, composition of short stories and descriptions, (at least 20 compositions a year, beginning with the fourth school year.) Arithmetic: addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, with whole numbers and fractions; rule of three; money, measures, and weights; measuring and computing of the most common surfaces and solids. Writing: a clear, even, fluent hand, plain and characteristic, in German and Latin characters. History: narratives taken from the history of the world and of Germany, (begins with the third school-year.) Geography: Germany, summary of Europe, general summary of the other continents; the most important facts of physical geography. Natural history: characteristics of the more important groups of the three divisions; the poisonous plants; commercial plants; grains and herbages; difference in soils; raw products, and their changes by manufacture. Important facts of natural philosophy with regard to the most common phenomena. Singing: of hymns, of popular and school lyrics. Gymnastics: free gymnastics and exercises at the bars.

The clergy superintend the proper working of the inner organization; the school-board the external affairs. The latter is composed of the mayor, the local minister, the teacher, (when there are more, the head-master,) and two deputies, elected by the council. The mayor is chairman. Above these authorities stands the *ephor* (superintendent) for the inner organization, and for the external affairs the board of inspectors, composed of the *ephor* and the district judge. The highest school authority is vested in the ministry of State, (department of worship,) one member of which shall be a counselor versed in the science of teaching.

Each schoolmaster is required to submit for approbation a detailed plan of the subjects, extent, and distribution of lessons for the year to the *ephor*, before the beginning of the scholastic year. The teachers are required to keep records of absences, and to report delinquents quarterly or monthly to the board, who must see that the parents are punished by sentence of the courts, if exhortations do not produce the desired effect. The schoolmasters are advised to keep a diary, in which they record the conduct of the pupils and remarks on the school management. They must play the organ and be the leaders of the choir in church, but they are not obliged to ring the bell, wind up the clock, sing at New Year, or carry about the invitations for baptisms, marriages, and burials.

The local school inspector shall report every year to the *ephor* on the result of the public examination, install new teachers into their office, allow short furloughs to teachers, compromise or report complaints of parents against teachers, and make suggestions how deficiencies might be mended. The head-master or rector has to perform these duties, if there be more than one class.

It is the duty of the school-boards to see that the absences from school are as few as possible; that the donations are safely invested; that the repairing and new building of the premises are properly executed; that new schools are established, if necessary, and that the necessary apparatus and utensils are purchased. The town and village councils are bound to carry out the resolutions of the board, and have the privilege of a vote, only when the board proposes to sell a donation of real estate, or to raise money for school purposes. The board is entitled to a vote, when there arises any question about the abilities, the method of teaching, and the conduct of a teacher to be employed, for every teacher who is not provisionally employed, and who is selected by the ministry, must prove his ability in presence of the board, by playing the organ, conducting an exercise in singing, reading a sermon, conducting the church music and catechising the children. The board, after this "trial," record their opinion before the teacher may enter upon the performance of his duties. The graduates of the Seminary must serve two years as provisionally employed teachers at a common school, before they can pass their second examination for a permanent employment.

The superintendents report every year on the condition of the schools, on the teachers and school-boards of their district, preside over the two annual teachers' conferences and over the reading clubs, may allow a fortnight's leave of absence to a teacher, regulate the substitution, when vacancies occur, and inspect the private schools of their district.

The school-inspectors decide on the proposals for building, and on the salaries, on the leasing of school property, on compromises of salaries, report on personal increase of salary, and decide on petitions of teachers for the license of marrying.

The highest school authority appoints the provisional teachers, nomi-

nates those to be permanently engaged, and decides on the teachers who have been elected by patrons; institutes investigations in cases of offense against discipline, dictates punishments and dismissions, and decides on petitions for personal increase of salary. They obtain by their counselor, who is bound to inspect a number of schools every year, a perfect knowledge of the condition of the schools and their progress, as well as of the conduct of the teachers, and their activity. The teachers, who are provisionally employed, draw a salary of 150 thalers from the school-fund, and are entitled to free lodging. The salary of a teacher, who is permanently engaged, amounts at least to 200 thalers, in which are included the portion paid in kind, estimated on an average price, and dwelling, estimated in the country to be equal to 10 thalers. After six years permanent engagement, the salary is increased to 225 thalers, the State paying the deficiency, if the district should not be able to raise so much. The salary is increased to 250 thalers after twelve years, when there are less than 80 pupils, to 240 th.; the third increase amounts to 80 th. after another six years' service; the fourth and last amounts to 40 th., and is only granted to those teachers who have more than 60 pupils, or whose duties are particularly onerous, or who have particularly distinguished themselves. The minimum salary in towns is thus fixed: In the third class 230, second class 240, and first class 250 thalers. The personal increase of salary is regulated as in the country schools. The rectors have a higher salary, and receive, after six years, an addition of 70 thalers.

Teachers are pensioned in agreement with the law for servants of the State, viz., 40 per cent. of the salary after ten years of service, increasing $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. with every additional year until it reaches 80 per cent., its maximum, after 37 years of service. The widows' pension amounts now to 40 thalers, and will be increased to 58 thalers; the annual assessment amounts to $1\frac{1}{2}$ thalers. The State assists the common schools with about 40,000 thalers a year.

Normal Seminaries.—There are in the grand duchy two Seminaries for the education of common school teachers. The smaller one is in Eisenach, the larger in Weimar. The former was founded in 1783, first combined with the gymnasium, but separated from it since 1817. The seminary has 2 classes; the 70 pupils remain in each class 2 years; age for admission 16 years full. There are 2 classes attached to the burgher-school, in which young men receive the instruction to qualify them for the seminary. There is a school connected with the seminary, in which 150 children are taught, in 4 classes. The seminary at Weimar was founded by duke William Ernest in 1726, and reorganized by Herder in 1788. A preparatory school was established in 1862. The seminary is divided into 2 classes, with 89 pupils, who remain 2 years in each class. The preparatory seminary has 58 pupils, who are expected to study 2 years. The pupils of both institutes pay 6 th. tuition fee a year. The recent reorganization of the seminaries (in 1859) requires, that the in-

struction in history, geography, and natural sciences, be given in such a manner that all which is important and essential for a common school, will be thoroughly understood, and which will offer to the teacher a rich and convenient collection from which he may easily select for the children that which is appropriate, and represent it in clear outlines and plastic form; that the pupils learn to express their thoughts with ease and clearness; that in arithmetic, particular attention be paid to the calculations that occur in agriculture and housekeeping, and to the measuring and computing of surfaces and solids, which are of frequent use in practical life; that the instruction in writing be calculated to make the pupil write a firm hand, to understand the laws of the form of letters, and to write regularly at the blackboard; that the reading be distinct, fluent, with proper intonation, and pure, without dialect, and that the candidate may learn to talk with the children about that which has been read in regard to the matter itself, and to the connection of its parts; that in drawing, Dupuis' principles be observed, and gymnastics be taught according to the teachings of Spiess. The method of teaching at the seminaries shall be in all branches, as far as possible, but particularly in history, geography, and natural sciences, not a regular lecture or mere text-book instruction; it shall rather be so devised as to give the pupils constant opportunities of explaining, in well constructed and logical speech, the contents of a chapter of the text-book, pointed out for their study, or of a chapter that had before been the object of instruction. The object of this method is to cause the pupils to deeply imprint upon their minds the knowledge which they have acquired, to practice oral teaching, and to offer the opportunity to their teachers of becoming intimately acquainted with the intellectual progress of each individual pupil, as well as to assist each according to his deficiencies. Thus is avoided the systematic theory of instruction, so very objectionable during the first year of studies at the seminary, and instead of it the way is shown how to treat each branch in teaching, at the same time that the pupils acquire the knowledge of its elements. The pupils are thus enabled to arrive at an understanding of the whole method by degrees, guided by hints and remarks connected with concrete examples, and the lectures on the methodical art of teaching during the last year will be easily understood by them. In order to become more intimately acquainted with the young men, to accustom them to industry and order, and to generally assist them in their studies, there are, every week, at least six study hours superintended by the teachers of the institute. The teachers are required to submit to the inspectors, at the beginning of each school-year, a synopsis of the subjects which they intend to teach, divided into ten divisions, one for each month of the session.

These subjects of instruction at the seminary are: Religion, the Bible, sacred history, catechetic exercises; catechetics; physiology and pedagogy; German grammar; composition and German literature; arithmetic; geometry; history; geography; natural sciences; culture of fruit-

trees; agriculture; penmanship; drawing; laws of harmony; singing; playing on the violin and organ; instruction of deaf-mutes and of the blind.

The expenses are: 1,450 th. for the 2 principals, who, besides, draw their salaries as school directors; 2,100 th. for 3 head teachers, 1,850 th. for the assistant teachers; together, 5,400 th., of which the State pays 4,090 thalers.

II. HIGHER SCHOOLS.

Gymnasia.—There are 2 gymnasia in the grand duchy of Weimar. The gymnasium at Weimar (*Guilielmo Ernestinum*) had its origin in a town and country school, founded in the middle of the 16th century, and patronized by the dukes John, John Ernest, and William IV; duke William Ernest made it a gymnasium in 1712, and provided a new school-house. There are 9 classes, with 249 pupils and 16 teachers, including assistants. The tuition fee is 16 to 20 th.; the salaries, 1,500, 1,200, 900, 750, 735, 700, 700, 550, 525 thalers. The gymnasium in Eisenach (*Carolo Fridericianum*) originated in the Latin parochial school of St. George, founded in 1200. There were evangelical teachers employed as early as 1525. The school was transferred to the Dominican convent in 1544, which was rebuilt in 1822. It has 6 classes and 169 pupils. The tuition fee amounts to 14 to 18 th.; there are 13 teachers whose salaries are 1,300, 900, 750, 575, 350 thalers. These gymnasia are not different from those of Prussia in any essential point. By recent grants, both gymnasia receive: for 2 principals, 3,100 th.; for 18 teachers, 13,000 th.; for elementary instruction, music, fencing, and gymnastics, 1,810 th.; for 2 servants, 450 th.; in all, 17,860 thalers.

Real-schools.—There are in the grand duchy, 4 real-schools, (2 larger and 2 smaller ones.) The real-gymnasium in Eisenach has 6 classes and 169 pupils; the teachers' salaries amount to 1,100, 700, 700, 550, 550, 450, 400, 400; the tuition fee, 16 th. By the recent grants it can dispose of 6,575 th., and ranks with a real-school of the first order in Prussia. The real-school in Weimar has 6 classes and 238 pupils; tuition fee, 12, 16, 20 th.; the principal and teachers draw the following salaries: 900, 600, 500, 500, 500, 400, 350 th.; the State assistance amounts to 600 th., but this sum will be increased, and with it the teachers' salaries. It is intended to reorganize it, so as to raise it to the rank of a Prussian real-school of the first order. The secondary-school in Eisenach consists of 2 classes, and the course in each lasts 2 years; number of pupils, 121; tuition fee, 6 th. The principal, who is at the same time at the head of the first burgher-school, draws a salary of 600 th.; the second teacher, 500 th.; the third, 450 th. This institute serves, at the same time, to qualify candidates for the seminary; the State assists with 400 th. The real-school at Neustadt on the Orla has 3 classes and 76 pupils. Tuition fee, 4, 6, and 8 th.; salaries, 550, 450, 300 th.; the State assists with 400 th.

III. SUPPLEMENTARY AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

The Institute for the Blind and for Deaf-mutes in Weimar.—This institution was enlarged and improved in 1857, in consequence of the foundation of the grand duchess Sophia, amounting to 10,000 th., and an additional donation of that princess of 5,000 th.; lastly, by a donation of 4,000 th.; which the inhabitants of the grand duchy made on the occasion of the silver wedding of the reigning grand duke and his duchess. The teacher of the deaf-mutes is at present principal; there are, besides, a teacher for the blind, and several assistants. The 24 deaf-mutes, and 6 blind, who are at present in the institute, are from 8 to 15 years old, and are educated in different departments. Those pupils who are fit to learn a trade, receive the necessary preliminary instruction in that trade, during the year preceding the first communion; all perform some work with their hands. Board and tuition fee amount to 60 th. a year, half of which is generally paid by the parents or the parish, the other half from the revenues of the institute. The income of the institute consists of: Interest on invested money, 520 th.; board and tuition fees, 850 th.; State assistance, 1,000 th.; together, 2,370 th. The expenses amount to: 1,700 th. for board, 900 th. for salaries, 400 th. for sundries; together, 3,000 th. Additional assistance is therefore required.

General Orphan Asylum.—The orphans of the country are placed in charge of Christian families, to whom a fixed remuneration for board, &c., is paid; but they receive instruction in the public schools. This provision includes only legitimate children without parents, and not under 6 years of age. After having been discharged from the foster-parents after the first communion, assistance in money is frequently granted, particularly when they have chosen a trade, until the young men establish themselves as masters, or until girls engage as house-servants. The number of orphans thus provided for amounts to between 1,200 and 1,800.

Falk's Institute is an institute for forsaken and neglected children, founded by John Falk, the originator of the German Reform School. The institute possesses a house and a garden.

Supplementary schools (Fortbildung.)—There being no obligation to keep such schools, there are but 77 voluntarily established. The instruction comprises a review of what has been learned in the common schools, and its application to trades. The instruction, designed for young men only, is given for two years after the first communion, in winter, on two evenings in the week, two hours each lesson. The parish provides the room, fuel, and light, and pays to the teacher 15 to 20 thalers. The State assists poor parishes to the amount of 150 thalers a year.

Girls' High-School.—The Sophia foundation in Weimar is a school for girls of the higher classes, from their 7th to their 17th year, founded on the 8th of April, 1854, and endowed by the grand duchess Sophia. There are 3 classes, with several subdivisions each, 128 pupils, 16 teachers, 5

governesses, and 4 female teachers. There are other private schools for girls in Weimar, Jena, Eisenach, and Apolda; and for boys at Jena, Apolda, (Zimmerman's real-school,) Remda, and Blankenhain.

Girls' Industrial schools and Kindergärten are liberally provided for in towns and villages.

DR. LAUKHARD.

[The following remarks by Dr. Weidemann belong to his account of the secondary-schools of Saxe-Meiningen.]

The rules which regulate the examinations of the real-school are the same as for those at the gymnasium; the board of examiners is composed of examiners and censors, the same high officer of the State is chairman, &c. The examination of the second degree extends over all the studies in Prima; the oral examination of the first degree embraces, however, not more than four or five different studies. The selection of the studies for examination depends partly on the general standard of the candidates, partly on the result of the preceding written examination, partly on the necessity of preventing the candidates from limiting their studies to one or the other branch of examination. The tuition-fee, as well as the fees for admission and graduation, are the same as with the gymnasia. The salaries of the teachers of a real-school correspond with those of the teachers of a gymnasium. The faculty of the real-school at Meiningen consists of 1 principal, 6 teachers, and 3 assistants; of the real-school at Saalfeld, of 1 principal, 6 teachers, and 2 assistants. The number of lessons in each class amounts to from 88 to 84; each teacher gives 18 to 24 lessons a week.

Every teacher at a gymnasium or real-school, except the teachers of drawing, music, gymnastics, and of the elementary studies, must have passed the State examination prescribed for those candidates who wish to obtain employment in the service of the higher schools. The board of examiners always consists of the ecclesiastic counselor, and the two directors of the gymnasia, when the candidate wishes to be a teacher at a gymnasium; and of the principal of the Meiningen real-school, when the candidate wishes to be a teacher at a real-school, and, further, of as many members as there are different branches of science in which the examination is to take place. The candidate may select these branches, but pedagogy and philosophy are obligatory; so are Latin and Greek, when the candidate wishes to teach ancient languages at a gymnasium; and so are mathematics, natural philosophy, and modern languages or natural history, when he wishes to be a regular teacher at a real-school. The board shall decide by the result of the examination, first, that the candidate has the qualification to teach at a gymnasium or real-school, or not, and then in what branches and up to what class he may teach. The certificate is to be given accordingly.

DR. WEIDEMANN.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.

AREA—POPULATION.

THE DUCHY OF SCHLESWIG, or SLESVIG—forming part of the ancient Cimbrian Peninsula, incorporated into the German empire in 960, dissevered in 1027, and ever since debateable ground between Denmark and Germany—had, in 1861, a population of 409,907, on an area of 3,794 English square miles. The duchy of Holstein had, in 1860, a population of 544,419, on an area of 3,255 square miles.

These duchies having been for centuries united with Denmark by *personal* union, belonged, nevertheless, at all times to Germany, because Holstein, which always and down to 1866 was first part of the German empire and then of the old German Confederation, was inseparably united with Schleswig, and, since 1866, has been a province of the Prussian monarchy. That three-fold union—with each other, with Germany, and with Denmark—was the source of perpetual contests and wars in old and modern times, and caused also the last outbreak, when the king of Denmark died without male heirs, so that according to the Salic law of Germany, the same long desired change was expected by the people, which had peaceably taken place in Hanover after the death of the late king of England, in 1837. As the legitimate and welcome successor in the duchies was unable, without an army, to maintain his right against Denmark, executive troops of Saxony, Prussia, and Austria, were sent there in the name of the German Confederation; and the defeat of the Danes, and soon after of Austria, was followed by the annexation of the duchies to the monarchy of Prussia. The fact, that in the most northern part of Schleswig, beyond Flensburg, the majority of the people is decidedly Danish, (except the cities, which have a mixed or prominently German population,) is now well known; as is also that the government of Denmark, in expectation of the coming contest, tried in recent times to introduce or to favor exclusively the Danish language and feelings in all parts of Schleswig, even in such places as had a mixed or merely German population. This affected, of course, the schools of Schleswig, and partly even those of Holstein, as it caused a perpetual struggle of the majority of the inhabitants with the government, or rather of the appointed clergymen (as school-inspectors) with the teachers, or with both of them. The duchies being now part of Prussia, the organization of their schools will soon be in entire accordance with the Prussian system.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOLS.*

Prior to the Reformation the school facilities of Schleswig-Holstein were very few and very defective, and about them little can be ascertained. There were in some of the larger cities *ecclesiae collegiatae* and schools connected with them. These schools seem never to have flourished, and the teaching consisted almost exclusively in a little reading and the singing of psalms for the Church services. As characteristic of the times we may mention that when in 1252 the citizens of Lubeck (a free city, but at that time as regards schools and church matters connected with Schleswig-Holstein) obtained permission from the Papal legate to establish a writing-school, the clergy of the city strenuously resisted this measure for ten years. More was done at Kiel than in any other city, where the school started in 1320 by the Lubeck clergyman Heinrich de Culmine found a zealous patron in Count John the Mild. Luther's Reformation rapidly gained ground in Schleswig-Holstein, and one of the first actions of the reformers Hermann Tast and Th. Pistorius was to establish a gymnasium at Husum (*Schleswig*) in the year 1527; another school of the same kind was in 1540 founded at Meldorf (*Holstein*). These two schools were founded by private means; but in 1537 king Christian III issued a general order with regard to the school-system in the Duchies. Every city and town was required to have a school with from three to four teachers, in which Latin was to be one of the principal subjects taught, and the aim was 'to lead the children to God.' Every class had its task assigned to it. In accordance with these principles the Cathedral-school in the city of Schleswig was reorganized in the year 1541. Three canons were placed at the head of it, (as *ludimagister*, *subrector*, and *cantor*,) together with four *paedagogi*. This school had five classes; in the lowest class, the children were taught to spell and read in Luther's Primer, and then took up "Donat" and "Cato." "Of such boys and girls as learn no Latin, we desire no more, besides other abilities, than that they learn to lead a pious and godly life." The salary of the rector was 100 florins, that of the subrector 80, and of the cantor 50.

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* By Dr. Holster, rector of the gymnasium at Meldorf, Holstein.

That the zeal for good learning had not died out, neither with the people nor with their rulers, was shown by the establishment of the University at Kiel, Oct. 3, 1665, by Duke Christian Albrecht of Holstein-Gottorp, towards which large sums were contributed by the people themselves.

The primary studies suffered much from the influence of serfdom and the introduction of the high German language into the schools, but a great improvement may be noticed since the Synod at Rendsburg, 1726. About this time history and geography were introduced as subjects of instruction in the gymnasiums.

In 1730 the gymnasium at Plön (Holstein) was founded by a legacy, and a few years later the gymnasium at Altona. In 1747 the school at Glückstadt was raised to the rank of gymnasium.

The Synod of Rendsburg, already mentioned, which met in 1526, was of the greatest importance. All schools were placed under the special supervision of the ecclesiastical provosts (*propst*); large parishes were divided into school-districts and a school founded in every one of them. Even during summer the children were required to attend school at least once a week, and in the cities girls' schools were established, which were among the earliest of this class in Europe. The school-term was fixed from All Saints' day (Nov. 9) till Easter. Teachers could not be removed by the commune, and were allowed the pasture for two cows, and might add to their income by carrying on some trade. Landed proprietors were required to pay towards the expenses of schools whether they had children or not. Boys were obliged to attend school from the age of ten to sixteen, and girls from ten to fifteen. In the town-schools some Latin was to be taught. The school was always opened by the singing of a hymn and by prayer. In the morning a chapter from the Old Testament, and in the afternoon one from the New Testament was read, by all the pupils taking part.

A new era commenced in 1773, when all the provinces were again united under the crown of Denmark. The university at Kiel was richly endowed, and education generally very much encouraged. In 1780 the first teachers' seminary was established at Kiel, whose first director was H. Müller, who infused some of the zeal which inspired himself, into his students. In later years many complaints were raised against the seminary, by the clergy, that latitudinarian doctrines were taught, and by others that very dull methods of instruction prevailed. Although these complaints were not well founded on actual facts, the seminary was nevertheless closed in 1823.

The discontinuance of the seminary at Kiel would have proved a great misfortune to the public schools, if not long after, by private exertions, another seminary had not been founded. This was done in 1786, by Belthazar Petersen, at Tondern (Schleswig). The course of instruction at this seminary embraced: religion, history of religion, anthropology, natural sciences, mathematics, geography, history, arithmetic, writing, singing, catechetics, German, and Danish.

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In 1797 the school system of the Duchy of Schleswig underwent a thorough reform. The number of gymnasiums was reduced to four as preparatory schools for the university, viz: Schleswig, Husum, Heusburg, Hadersleben. In the other towns there were converted into "burgher-schools" (somewhat higher primary schools for the children of the townspeople), without instruction in Latin. In the elementary classes boys and girls were left together, but in the higher classes they were separated. In the country the sexes were not separated. The salaries of teachers in country schools was fixed at 30 to 100 dollars, with house, garden, and pasture for two cows.

A similar reorganization took place in Holstein, and prepared the way for the general school-regulation of August 24, 1814. According to this regulation all schools were divided into three classes, gymnasiums, burgher-schools, country-schools. Of the gymnasiums there were in Schleswig four, viz: Schleswig, Heusburg, Husum, Hadersleben; and in Holstein six, viz: Altona, Kiel, Plön, Glückstadt, Meldorf, and (since 1818) Rendsburg. The number of teachers in each was fixed at four, and they alone were authorized to dismiss pupils to the university after an examination. Their salaries ranged from 1,200 to 500 Danish dollars (1 Danish dollar equal to about 50 cents). They were appointed by the government, and were obliged to give 27 hours instruction a week.

The schools in towns in which there was no gymnasium, were designated burgher-schools; in these Greek and Latin were not taught, their aim was "to educate good christians and citizens." At the head of these schools there was to be a rector, assisted by graduates from the seminaries, appointed by the church authorities. All school-fees were abolished, and the teachers were to receive a fixed salary, raised by regular contributions from all citizens of the town. The instruction was to embrace, German, Danish, French, arithmetic, geography, history, natural history, religion.

The primary schools in the country districts were made free; the school-rooms were to be at least ten feet high; the choice of teachers was partly left to the communes, partly to the church visitors (*kirchen visitatoren*), and the minimum salary from 48 to 160 Danish dollars, according to the locality. Children must attend school from the seventh year of their age, during the year, except in harvest time, when by special consent of the clergyman, the older boys might stay away to assist their parents.

The thorough reorganization of the whole school-system, in 1818-1834, will always form one of the brightest spots in the reign of king Frederik VI, who took a great personal interest in all school-matters, and was a frequent visitor in the town and country schools. In 1818 the king heard for the first time about the Bell and Lancaster system of instruction from a talented young officer, Abrahamson, who on his visits to England had become acquainted with it, and interested his majesty to organize a school on this system at Copenhagen, and a normal school on the same principles, though with some modifications, at Eckernförde (Schleswig).

In 1834 a provincial normal school was established in the castle of Gottorp (Schleswig), many new school-houses were built, the number and efficiency of the schools increased, the position of the teachers improved, &c. As the teachers' seminary in Tondern (Schleswig) could not supply the required number of teachers, another was opened at Segeberg (Holstein) in 1844.

Special attention was bestowed on the gymnasiums through the untiring exertions of Councilor Nitzsch, who in 1827 had been called from Wittenberg as professor at Kiel, and from 1835 officiated as member of the provincial government at Gottorp. He worked unceasingly at reforming the gymnasiums, and at infusing new life into their internal administration.

King Christian VIII (since 1840), a liberal and highly intelligent monarch, seconded all these movements begun by his predecessor, contributed from his private resources large sums for school purposes, and helped to frame and sanction, just before his death in 1848, the new law for the gymnasiums which forms the basis of all the existing regulations in the Duchies respecting these institutions.

Unfortunately this flourishing and promising state of things was interrupted by political influences. As far back as 1830, there had been a constantly growing animosity between the German and the Danish inhabitants of the Duchy of Schleswig. In January, 1848, at the accession of Frederik VII to the throne, the new and extremely liberal Danish ministry, seconded by the enthusiastic applause of the whole Danish nation and the Danish portion of Schleswig, proclaimed that this Duchy formed an inseparable part of the Kingdom of Denmark. Before this took place, a revolution had broken out at Rendsburg, a military force was hastily collected there, which was strengthened by an auxiliary corps sent by Germany. Then followed a sanguinary war of three years' duration, which, after Germany had concluded peace with Denmark, ended in the complete overthrow of the insurgent army and government in 1850, when Holstein and Schleswig were restored to Denmark, and their possession solemnly guaranteed by all the great powers of Europe.

As regards Holstein, the schools were left by this disturbance as they had been before the war.

In Schleswig great changes followed. This Duchy, with a population half German, half Danish, was divided into three districts; 1, a northern Danish one, where the language used in church and school was to be Danish; 2, a middle district, with a mixed population—here the language used in church and school was to be partly Danish, partly German; and 3, a southern German district, where the language used in church and school was to be entirely German. Schleswig was to have two teachers' seminaries, a German one at Eckernförde (since 1854), and a Danish one at Tondern (since 1858). As regards the gymnasiums, the one at Husum was abolished, and of the remaining three, the one at Hadersleben (in the northern Danish district) was to be entirely Danish; the one at Heusburg (in the mixed

district) was to be partly Danish, partly German, whilst the one at Schleswig (in the German district) was to be entirely German.

These arrangements, though made after a long and careful consideration of the existing circumstances, proved the cause of the most violent and bitter attack by the press and the people of Germany on the Danish government and the Danish nation, and, to no slight extent, brought on the war waged by Austria and Prussia against Denmark in 1864. It was maintained by the Germans that Denmark had let loose on the unfortunate Duchy an army of ignorant and fanatical school-masters and clergymen, and had systematically suppressed the German language, even in the mixed district and the German district. It cannot be denied that there were many individual cases of this kind, still the whole matter was greatly exaggerated in order to make political capital. Even if the charges were true, it is certain that after the war of 1864, in which Denmark was completely defeated, and had to cede Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia, the very same thing was done by the German authorities toward the Danish population of Schleswig, which had been the cause of such violent outcry when done by Denmark, with the difference that in the former case there were forty millions of Germans to echo these complaints, whilst the oppressed Danish inhabitants of Schleswig had only a million and a half of Danes to protest in their behalf. It is, however, to be hoped, that when Article 5 of the treaty of Prague (1866) is fulfilled by Prussia, and Northern Schleswig is re-ceded to Denmark, peace and harmony will be again restored, and education in the whole of Schleswig will take a free and national development, unimpeded by any political influences.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

(1.) *School Organization and Administration.* The primary school system of Schleswig-Holstein is based on the general school regulation of 1814. Children are obliged to attend school from the sixth year of their age, boys till the sixteenth, and girls to the fifteenth year. By special permission from the clergyman, children need not attend school during the summer months. This privilege is constantly made use of, much to the detriment of the children's education. Those who wish to have their children instructed at home by private tutors, must satisfactorily prove the competency of the teachers employed.

Every village has its school-house, generally a neat and convenient building. In smaller neighborhoods, two or three unite and provide one school-house in common.

The salary of the teacher is raised exclusively by the commune, and only in very urgent cases the state grants a subsidy. In the country the landed proprietors must keep the school-master's house in repair, and supply him with corn, hay, and fuel, whilst all the inhabitants must contribute proportionally towards the salary. There are no school-fees whatever.

The highest authority in school matters is the government of each

Duchy, which has to decide in all special cases. The current business is managed by a board of education (*schul-collegium*).

The schools are under a threefold supervision: (1,) the general superintendent (the bishop), who at the triennial church visitation also examines a number of schools; (2,) the ecclesiastical provost (*propst*), who at the biennial church visitation examines all the schools of his diocese; (3,) the clergyman, under whose supervision the school of his parish is placed, and who has to work hand in hand with the school-master.

(2.) *Number of schools and pupils.* The total number of school-children in 1863, was, in Holstein, 98,546; and in Schleswig, 74,603. In Schleswig there were in the same year, in 227 parishes, 720 schools; and in Holstein, in 132 parishes, 1,067 schools. The number of primary school teachers in Schleswig was 720, and in Holstein, 1,255, because several schools had to have assistants on account of the large number of children.

Internal organization. In the rural districts there is only one school for boys and girls of various ages and attainments, whilst in the villages and towns there are separate schools for boys and girls. The town schools are divided into elementary schools with two classes, and chief schools (*hauptschulen*). In these last the course of studies embraces: elements of geometry, history, geography, physics, natural history, Danish, French (if possible), religion, singing, and Latin (in special classes). Instruction in gymnastics has of late years been made obligatory. The teacher must keep an account of the diligence, behavior, and attendance of each child; there is an annual examination at Easter. The school-hours are from 8 to 11 and from 1 to 4. Wednesday and Saturday afternoons are half holidays.

(3.) *Teachers, and Teachers' Seminaries.* Many of the rectors and chief teachers of primary scholars are theological candidates, but most of them have been educated at the teachers' seminaries.

In 1868 there were in the Duchies three teachers' seminaries, viz: Segeberg (Holstein), since 1844; at Eckernförde (Schleswig), since 1858, (reorganized in 1865), and at Tondern (Schleswig), since 1786. The two first are entirely German, whilst the latter is half German, half Danish. The number of students is the following: Segeberg 80; Eckernförde 60; Tondern 80. The two first mentioned have each three teachers and assistant teachers, for music, horticulture, and gymnastics. The director (one of the three teachers), must be a theologian, and superintend the whole. The seminary at Tondern has six teachers (three German teachers and three Danish teachers.) The director has to make out the programme of studies, to preside at the monthly teachers' conferences, &c. The course of instruction at these seminaries embraces: arithmetic, geometry, algebra, German, Danish (in Tondern), natural history, history, geography, singing, instrumental music (piano, violin, organ), religion, composition, &c. On leaving, each student who passes a satisfactory examination, receives a certificate. Each seminary has a library and the necessary apparatus.

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The schools are under a threefold supervision: (1,) the general superintendent (the bishop), who at the triennial church visitation also examines a number of schools; (2,) the ecclesiastical provost (*propst*), who at the biennial church visitation examines all the schools of his diocese; (3,) the clergyman, under whose supervision the school of his parish is placed, and who has to work hand in hand with the school-master.

(2.) *Number of schools and pupils.* The total number of school-children in 1863, was, in Holstein, 98,546; and in Schleswig, 74,603. In Schleswig there were in the same year, in 227 parishes, 720 schools; and in Holstein, in 132 parishes, 1,067 schools. The number of primary school teachers in Schleswig was 720, and in Holstein, 1,255, because several schools had to have assistants on account of the large number of children.

Internal organization. In the rural districts there is only one school for boys and girls of various ages and attainments, whilst in the villages and towns there are separate schools for boys and girls. The town schools are divided into elementary schools with two classes, and chief schools (*hauptschulen*). In these last the course of studies embraces: elements of geometry, history, geography, physics, natural history, Danish, French (if possible), religion, singing, and Latin (in special classes). Instruction in gymnastics has of late years been made obligatory. The teacher must keep an account of the diligence, behavior, and attendance of each child; there is an annual examination at Easter. The school-hours are from 8 to 11 and from 1 to 4. Wednesday and Saturday afternoons are half holidays.

(3.) *Teachers, and Teachers' Seminaries.* Many of the rectors and chief teachers of primary scholars are theological candidates, but most of them have been educated at the teachers' seminaries.

In 1868 there were in the Duchies three teachers' seminaries, viz: Segeberg (Holstein), since 1844; at Eckernförde (Schleswig), since 1858, (reorganized in 1865), and at Tondern (Schleswig), since 1786. The two first are entirely German, whilst the latter is half German, half Danish. The number of students is the following: Segeberg 80; Eckernförde 60; Tondern 80. The two first mentioned have each three teachers and assistant teachers, for music, horticulture, and gymnastics. The director (one of the three teachers), must be a theologian, and superintend the whole. The seminary at Tondern has six teachers (three German teachers and three Danish teachers.) The director has to make out the programme of studies, to preside at the monthly teachers' conferences, &c. The course of instruction at these seminaries embraces: arithmetic, geometry, algebra, German, Danish (in Tondern), natural history, history, geography, singing, instrumental music (piano, violin, organ), religion, composition, &c. On leaving, each student who passes a satisfactory examination, receives a certificate. Each seminary has a library and the necessary apparatus.

(4.) *Appointment of teachers; school libraries; teachers' widows and orphans.* As a general rule students leave the seminary at the age of twenty-two or twenty-three, and are soon appointed teachers. Formerly they were exempt from military service, but now they have to serve six weeks, and then enter the reserve. They are exempt from all personal taxes. As regards their salary, it ranges from 80 to 200 dollars, and in a few cases even more. In every parish there is a school library, towards which the church has to contribute at least six dollars. This library is in charge of the clergyman. There is no pension law for primary school teachers. Still in most cases they receive a pension, generally raised by the commune, varying from 60 to 240 dollars. As regards the widows and orphans of school-masters, there is a law in Holstein (since 1856) which obliges all teachers to become contributors to the teachers' widows fund. From this fund every teacher's widow receives an annual pension of 30 dollars, and every unconfirmed child 3½ dollars. In Schleswig the commune pays to every widow an annual pension equal to one-eighth of her late husband's income.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

General remarks. The secondary schools are under the direct supervision of the government, but those of Holstein have a director of their town. He has to sanction the programme of studies, and to visit the school from time to time. To him are handed the reports; he receives copies of the certificates which students obtain on leaving (*abgangszeugnisse*). The text-books are selected in the teachers' conference. All cases of discipline and all general affairs of the school are discussed in this conference. At the head of every class there is placed a so-called "*Ordinarius*," to superintend his pupils at school and at home.

Statistics. The total number of students in 1867 was, 958 in Schleswig, and 1,257 in Holstein. They were distributed over the various "gymnasia" in the following manner: *Holstein*—Altona, 288 students (in 1828, 58); Glückstadt, 152 (in 1836, 39); Kiel, 336 (in 1842, 71); Meldorf, 135 (in 1833, 33); Plön, 81 (in 1844, 45; in 1863, 19); Rendsburg, 196 (in 1839, 43, and in 1863, 219). *Schleswig*—Flensburg, 349 (in 1838, 64, and in 1863, 310), Hadersleben 173 (in 1833, 31, and in 1863, 192); Husum, 141 (in 1853, when it was changed to a burgher school, 53); Schleswig, 280 (in 1840, 55, and in 1863, 135). Besides these ten, there is the progymnasium at Tondern (Schleswig), established in 1864, and numbering in 1867, 38 students, in three classes. There are six classes in each gymnasium, counted from the first downward, and called by the Latin name. All the Schleswig gymnasia, and in Holstein those at Altona, Kiel, and Glückstadt, have preparatory classes (Flensburg three and Kiel two); in Flensburg these classes number 104 pupils. The age of admittance is nine years, but in the preparatory classes, in which no Latin is taught, younger pupils are admitted. At the real gymnasium at Rendsburg, and at the Schleswig gymnasia, there exist parallel to the classes *quarto*, *tertia*,

and secunda, real classes, in which no Greek is taught, and which have only two hours Latin per week.

The number of teachers in 1867, was 58 in Holstein, and 50 in Schleswig. The number of assistant teachers was 13 in each duchy. The total expense (in 1865) was 43,908 dollars 8 silbergroschen in Schleswig, and 49,071 dollars 19 silbergroschen in Holstein.

Internal organization. The following is the course of studies:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion, - - - -	2	2	3	3	4	4
German, - - - -	2	2	2	2	3	4
Danish, - - - -	2	2	2	2	-	-
French, - - - -	2	3	3	-	-	-
Latin, - - - -	8	8	8	8	8	6
Greek, - - - -	6	6	4	4	-	-
Mathematics, - - -	3	3	3	-	-	-
Arithmetic, - - -	-	-	-	3	4	4
Natural History, - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
History and Geography,	3	3	3	4	4	4
Archæology, Mathematics, } Geography, &c., }	1	-	-	-	-	-
Drawing, - - - -	-	-	1	1	1	1
Calligraphy, - - - -	-	-	-	2	2	3
Singing, - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1
	32	32	32	32	30	30

The new law of 1868 made comparatively few changes in this programme, which will be noticed in a brief review of the subjects taught. *Religion* is taught by teachers of the gymnasium, and not by clergymen. The Lutheran Catechism is the text-book in the lower classes. In the higher classes Biblical history is gone through, and also Church history, Christian morals, outline of dogmatics, exegesis of one of St. Paul's Epistles, elements of Church symbolics, explanation of the Augsburg Confession. In *Latin*, the number of hours was reduced to seven in class V of the Holstein gymnasia, whilst at the Schleswig gymnasia, as also in Rendsburg, it is reduced to two hours reading of Latin authors in the real classes, from class IV upwards. The grammars used are those of Ellendt-Seyffert, Madvig, Berger, Kühner, Schultz. The authors read are: Cæsar, Cicero, Sallust, Livy, Tacitus; Ovid, Virgil, Horace, and Terence. In *Greek*, the following authors are read: Xenophon's *Anabasis* and *Memorabilia*, Plutarch, Herodotus, Isocrates, Lysias, Homer, Euripides, Sophocles, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Plato. Instruction in *Hebrew* is only given to those who intend to study theology. Instruction in *French* has been extended down to class V, with two hours in each class. The following authors are read: Racine, Molière, Boileau, Ponsard, Scribe, Guizot, Miguet, Voltaire (Charles XII), Lamartine, Toepfer. Instruction in Danish has, since 1864, either been entirely abolished in most of the gymnasia in Holstein and Southern Schleswig, or reduced to one hour per week. Only at Hadersleben, surrounded by a Danish speaking population, there are two hours' instruction in Danish in every class, and three

in class VI. Of late years *English* has become a favorite study at the gymnasia. The number of hours devoted to the study of this language is on an average two, in Altona, Rendsburg, Plön, Meldorf, one in class I. In the gymnasium classes English is commenced in class IV or III. In the real classes English is taught four hours a week. The following authors are read: in class I, Shakspeare, Byron, Macaulay, Washington Irving; in class II, Dickens, Thackeray; in class III, Marryat.

Every student has to write out at home a weekly Latin exercise, and in the lower classes a weekly German composition; in the higher classes, one in every two to three weeks; also Greek, French, and English translations, and mathematical tasks. At the end of the half-yearly term, an examination takes place. The scholastic year closes at Easter. Each gymnasium has its library, (Flensburg 20,000 volumes, Schleswig 10,000 volumes, Meldorf 5,600, Kiel 3,500, Glückstadt 1,400, &c.) On leaving the gymnasium every student has to undergo a final examination (*abiturienten-examen*), both oral and written, and in accordance with the result of this examination a certificate is given to him.

Position of the Teachers. Each gymnasium has from eleven to fourteen teachers, and from one to four assistants. The four first in rank have the title of rector, corrector, subrector, and collaborator. The salaries range from 1,000 to 480 dollars. Assistant teachers are mostly paid by the hour, at the average rate of half a dollar per hour. The rector is obliged to give 18 hours instruction, the three teachers next in rank 22 hours, and all the rest 26 hours per week. The teacher has to undergo an examination.

III. REAL SCHOOL CLASSES.

There are no independent real schools in Schleswig and Holstein, but every gymnasium has a number of real school classes. The only real school is at Sonderburg (Schleswig), since 1865, with four teachers and 74 pupils, in three classes; others are contemplated.

The course of instruction is as follows:

CLASSES.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion, - - - -	2	2	2	3	4	4
German, - - - -	2	2	2	2	4	4
Danish, - - - -	2	2	2	2	-	-
French, - - - -	3	4	3	2	2	-
English, - - - -	3	4	3	2	2	-
Latin, - - - -	2	2	2	6	6	6
Mathematics, - - -	7	4	4	2	-	-
Arithmetic, - - -	-	1	2	3	5	5
Natural Sciences, - -	5	5	4	2	2	2
Geography and Astronomy, 1	1	1	1	4	4	5
History, - - - -	3	2	3			
Writing, - - - -	-	-	1	2	2	3
Drawing, - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	1

IV. SPECIAL AND SUPPLEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Orphan Asylums. In the beginning of the eighteenth century orphan asylums were founded at Altona, Kiel, Schleswig, Flensburg. They al-

ways enjoyed the special favor of the kings, but gradually died out one after the other, chiefly on account of the excellence of the poor-laws, which rendered orphan asylums superfluous.

Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. The institution for the deaf and dumb at Schleswig was founded in 1787, by Professor Pfingsten, as a private enterprise; in 1799 it was removed to Kiel, and became a government institution. In 1810 it was again removed to Schleswig, where it is still. It is under a director, at present Dr. Paulsen. All deaf and dumb children of the two duchies are, after they have accomplished the seventh year of their age, boarded, clothed, instructed, and taught a trade till their confirmation. The expenses of this institution are 9,000 thalers per annum, which are advanced by the government treasury and refunded every third year by contributions raised on all the landed proprietors of the duchies according to the number of acres which they possess. The number of teachers is six, and the average number of pupils is 90. Many workshops and a printing office are connected with this establishment.

There is one Institution for the Blind at Kiel, founded and maintained by private munificence, May 1, 1862. It numbers at present 30 pupils.

There is one Insane Asylum at Kiel (founded in 1862), numbering (1867) 37 inmates, chiefly idiotic children. Another Insane Asylum is at Sonderburg (founded in 1852 as a private enterprise). At present the number of inmates is 40.

DUCHY OF LAUENBURG.

THE DUCHY OF LAUENBURG (218 square miles and 49,704 inhabitants in 1864) was for several centuries in the possession of the Dukes of Saxe-Lauenburg, and when that line became extinct in 1705, was joined to Hanover. In 1815, at the Congress of Vienna, it was given to Denmark in indemnification for the loss of Norway. It never took any part in the Schleswig-Holstein agitation, but remained loyal to Denmark. Nevertheless it was occupied by Austro-Prussian troops in 1863-64, and King Christian IX, of Denmark was compelled to renounce his rights to the Duchy. By the treaty of Gastein, August 14th, 1865, it was incorporated with Prussia, Austria being paid by the latter power 2,500,000 Danish thalers.

The school-organization is the same as in Holstein, and will no doubt be soon remodeled in conformity with the Prussian system. There is one gymnasium at Ratzeburg, founded in 1645, with 132 scholars (in 1865.) The number of elementary schools was 110.

As a fair sample of the town school arrangements, we will give the public school system of Altona and Kiel more in detail:

Public Schools in Kiel.

In Kiel (18,000 inhabitants), all the schools of the town are under the superintendence of a board of education, consisting of two clergymen, two lay members of the town consistory (ecclesiastical board), two members of the town council, and the first teachers of the chief boys' school. They have to attend to all the current business and to keep the school accounts. In conjunction with the town council they nominate the teachers. The schools are divided into four classes: free schools, half-day schools, lower and higher burgher schools.

(1.) In the free schools the instruction is given gratuitously; their aim is to give a general elementary education. The boys' free school has two teachers, and the girls' free school four female teachers besides; both of these have assistant teachers according to the number of pupils. The number of recitation-hours is from 24 to 28 per week. The number of pupils ranges from 70 to 90.

(2.) The half-day schools are intended for children who must work part of their time at home in order to contribute towards the maintenance of the family. The children who enter these schools must have completed their tenth year, and must have had a good primary education. The school-hours are in the afternoon, from 4.30 till 6.30. The school-fee is 3 thalers 12 silbergroschen (Prussian money).

(3.) In the burgher schools the school-fee varies from 4 to 6½ dollars (Prussian money). Mathematics, natural history, physics, &c., are taught, besides continuing the instruction in the elementary subjects. There are three teachers and several assistants. The maximum number of pupils is 70, 80, and 60, according to the different classes.

The burgher schools for girls have, besides the two male teachers, four female teachers. The number of school-hours is 30 per week.

(4.) In the higher burgher schools (school-fee 8 to 16 Prussian dollars), English and French, and some book-keeping, and technics, are taught. The number of hours in the lower classes varies from 24 to 28, in the higher classes from 32 to 34. The maximum number of pupils is 60, 50, 40. There are four teachers. The higher burgher school for girls has three male and four female teachers. Every school has a library, a collection of wall-maps, and the necessary philosophical apparatus.

Besides the above-mentioned schools, which are under the municipal authorities, there is at Kiel a Royal gymnasium, founded by Count Henry the Mild, of Holstein and Stormarn, in the year 1320. Up to 1848, it was under the municipal authorities, but since then it is a government establishment. It had (1868) nine gymnasium classes, with 310 pupils, and two preparatory classes, with 80 pupils. The number of teachers is fifteen. The library numbers 3,500 volumes.

Public Schools in Altona.

In Altona (58,000 inhabitants) the school board (*schulcollegium*) is composed of the mayor of the city, a member of the magistracy, three clergymen, the school director, and three members of the town council; besides these, the town secretary as secretary of the board. The duties of this board are to elect the school director, to appoint teachers and assistant teachers, to superintend private schools, and to conduct all negotiations with the town council.

The school committee (*schulcommission*) consists of twelve members (mostly citizens), under the presidency of a member of the magistracy and the school director. They must ascertain every year the number of school children (at present, 1868, 8,697), keep the school-houses in repair, and collect the school fees.

The duties of the school director are varied; he must make out the school programme, propose persons for vacant teachers' places, examine the candidates, draw up an annual report, recommend poor children for the free schools and half-day schools, superintend the buildings, assemble the teachers at an annual conference, &c.

The schools are as follows: (1.) Free schools: two for boys and girls, every school with three grades, elementary, middle, and higher.

(1.) The two free schools first mentioned have parallel classes, whilst the higher class has alongside of it a half-day's class. The former half-day's school had 497 pupils (266 boys and 231 girls) in five classes, and the evening schools (which do not exist any more) had 503. The free schools impart elementary instruction. Each school has one teacher and several assistants (four in the boys' school, with 320, 320, 300, 300, Prussian dollars salary, and two in the girls' school, with 920 and 300 Prussian dollars salary; two female teachers, with 200 and 160 Prussian dollars salary, and two female assistants for needle-work, with 50 dollars salary). The two chief teachers, as well as the teacher of the half-day's school, have each a salary of 760 Prussian dollars salary.

(2.) The burgher schools give a more advanced instruction than the free schools. Of these there are four (three for boys and one for girls), which in twenty-nine classes numbered 1,862 pupils (1,264 boys and 598 girls). Besides the subjects taught in the free schools, the course of instruction includes drawing, gymnastics (for boys), and English. Each of these schools has six graded classes, in the three lower of which the school-fee amounts to 5 Prussian dollars, and to 6 in the three higher ones. No class can have more than 80 pupils; none of the higher classes more than 60. Every school has three chief teachers (with a salary of 880, 640, and 400 Prussian dollars), and three assistant teachers (with 360, 320, and 300 Prussian dollars salary). The burgher school for girls has three chief male teachers (with 880, 640, and 400 Prussian dollars salary), three female teachers (with 240, 200, and 160 Prussian dollars salary), and two female assistants for needle-work (with 60 Prussian dollars salary).

(3.) The middle-class schools prepare pupils for some industrial or mercantile business. English is obligatory, and French is taught in several classes. There is at present only one such school, with six classes, three chief teachers, and three assistant teachers. The number of scholars is at most 60, and in the upper classes 50, with a school-fee of 10, 12, 14 Prussian dollars. The salary of the teachers is 1,080, 720, and 600 dollars; that of the assistants, 480, 360, and 320 dollars.

(4.) There are six legally authorized private schools (institutes) for boys, with twenty-six classes and 626 pupils, and nineteen for girls, with eighty-two classes and 1,402 pupils. They are founded and managed by theological candidates. They are under the superintendence of the school board. The school-fee varies from 24 to 80 dollars. Arithmetic, writing, English, and French, form the chief subjects of instruction.

(5.) There are several parochial schools of dissenting churches, such as Catholics, Reformed, and Jews, which numbered in 1868 only 502 pupils (94 in the Jewish school, in five classes, and 160 pupils in the Catholic school, with three classes).

(6.) Preparatory or primary schools (17, with 522 children), intended for children who have not yet reached the required age to attend school.

(7.) Infant schools, of which there are two, under the superintendence of a committee of four (one clergyman, two citizens, and the school director). The daily business is managed by a committee of twelve ladies. A matron (*hausmutter*), three female teachers, and two female assistants, live in the school building. The children (at present 250), from three to six years, get a good nourishing soup for their dinner, and milk in the morning and evening. These schools are founded by private benevolence.

(8.) The Sunday improvement school, founded in 1801 by Dr. Funk, has from 500 to 600 pupils, in twenty-three classes, and is a technical preparatory school for artisans and mechanics. The hours of instruction are in summer from 7 to 9 o'clock, and in winter from 8 to 10 o'clock. The instruction is given gratuitously. The subjects taught are: free-hand drawing, drawing of plans of buildings, drawing of machines, geometrical drawing, algebra, geometry, mechanics, writing, &c.

Besides these schools, which are under the municipal authorities, there is a Royal gymnasium, called the Christianeum, founded in 1744. There were (in 1868) eight classes, with 360 pupils, and seventeen teachers. The number of graduates in the same year, was fourteen. The gymnasium library numbered 24,000 volumes.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SCHWARZBURG.

HISTORY—AREA—POPULATION.

THE House of Schwarzburg is one of the oldest in Germany, having been founded in the 12th century by Count Sizgo, and gave an emperor to Germany in 1349. The territory has been frequently divided among various members of the family, and at present consists of two principalities, each of which is composed of two detached portions scattered through Thuringia, and together have an area of 658 square miles, and, in 1864, 139,936 inhabitants.

I. SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT.

SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT has an area of 340 square miles, and a population of 73,747. The school-system dates back to the 16th century, and was revised in 1861. The school authorities are all ecclesiastics, from the local inspector, who is the parish minister, the district and general superintendents, who are both *ex-officio* such from their relations to the Church, to the highest board, which is the consistory. The schools are managed by the commune, the teachers' salaries being paid by the parents of the children, with aid from the State in certain cases. Attendance is not made compulsory by law, although in fact, all children do attend school, as they can not be admitted to confirmation without producing evidence of elementary instruction. Teachers must be twenty-one years old, and must have been educated in one of the two Normal Schools. They are first appointed provisionally, but when regularly installed as teachers, they can not be removed except for immoral conduct, or irreligious teaching; and only by the highest school-board.

The number of primary schools is 118, with 11,564 pupils and 147 teachers; there is also 1 higher school for girls and 3 industrial schools.

The Normal School at Rudolstadt (the capital, with 6,436 inhabitants) was founded in 1747; had, in 1868, 12 students, each with board and lodging, and a stipend of 30 florins. The Seminary at Frankenhäusen had, in 1868, six students. The general inspector of schools is principal of the Rudolstadt school.

The Gymnasium in Rudolstadt, known since 1764 as *Fridericianum*, has a library of 5,580 volumes, and an annual income of 15,300 florins. There are six classes, with 160 pupils, besides two real-classes, with 83 pupils, and an aggregate of 16 teachers, besides instruction in drawing in a separate school.

II. SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN.

SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN has an area of 318 square miles, and 66,189 inhabitants. The school-system dates back to the Reformation, but was revised in 1852, and in 1865.

Attendance at school is obligatory, and the course of primary instruction includes the following subjects: study of the catechism and a certain number of psalms, knowledge of the Bible, singing of church-tunes, reading and writing, air and words of popular songs, correct speaking and orthography, drawing, elements of geometry, geography, history and natural sciences. Every year at Easter an examination is held. The vacation lasts 9 weeks, (3 at Christmas, 3 at Easter, 3 at Whitsuntide.)

The local school-committee (*Schulvorstand*) consists of the parish minister, and of two inhabitants, in the country, and of six in towns—chosen by the legal voters for six years. The next authority consists of the ecclesiastical inspector, and the district governor, (*Landrath*;) and the highest is the school-section in the Ministry, two members of which are the principals of the Gymnasium and the Real-school at Sondershausen. School-attendance is obligatory from the 6th to the completion of the 14th year, and parents who persist in detaining their children from school are punished by fine and imprisonment. Such cases are rare.

Teachers, before they can be employed even as assistants, must have graduated at the Normal School at Sondershausen, which was founded in 1844, and has a school of practice annexed. The course extends through three years, and is highly practical, as well as thorough. The students have to undergo a very thorough examination on leaving the institution, for which six compositions must be written on subjects touching on the following studies: pedagogics, religion, German, music, history, (alternately with mathematics,) pomology; these compositions, after having been corrected, are sent in to the school-section in the ministry for inspection. The subjects of instruction at the seminary are divided into "essential ones," viz.: pedagogics, religion, German, music, arithmetic, and practice in school-keeping; and "accessory subjects," embracing all the other branches of instruction. There were 17 pupils in 1868. Teachers who have served 40 years are retained on an annual allowance of four-fifths of the average of their former salary.

There are 145 primary schools, with 14,210 pupils and 181 teachers.

There are two Gymnasias: one at Arnstadt, founded in 1538, with 5 classes, 11 teachers, and 105 pupils; and a second, at Sondershausen, founded in 1829, with 5 classes, 11 teachers, and 116 pupils. In each of the above towns there is a Real-school—the former having 5 classes, 9 teachers, and 142 pupils; and the latter 23 classes, and a total of 24 teachers and 928 pupils. Of this large number of pupils, 106 are girls in 5 higher classes, 316 are boys in a Burgher-school of 6 classes, and 304 are in a Burgher-school for girls, all of which are under the principal of the Real-school. In the 6 Real-school classes there are 202 pupils.—(*Abridged from a communication by Dr. Wimmer, of Dresden.*)

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN WALDECK.

AREA—POPULATION—HISTORY—GOVERNMENT.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF WALDECK, situated between Hesse Cassel and Westphalia, consists of two detached sections about 30 miles apart. The larger has an area of 426 square miles, with a population of about 50,000, and the smaller, (earldom of Pyrmont,) an area of 82 square miles, and a population of about 8,000—a total area of 466 square miles, with 65,000 inhabitants, chiefly evangelical Protestants.

Waldeck was first known as an earldom in the eleventh century, and in 1625 the reigning earl inherited Pyrmont, and was recognized as prince. The family was enrolled by the Congress of Vienna among the sovereign houses of Europe, in consideration of the services of Field Marshal, Prince George, in the wars against France.

The Constitution granted in 1852 provides for a legislative assembly of forty members, (18 chosen by the nobility, 18 by the inhabitants of towns, and 10 by the rural population,) with an executive committee of six members to prepare legislation, and to vote supplies in the interval of meetings of the whole body, a ministry of justice and foreign affairs, and another of the interior. Since 1866, the government, at the request of the reigning prince, is administered by Prussia.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The establishment of public schools dates back to the Reformation. A church order of 1640 provides "for the appointment of an able and pious sacristan in connection with every church, to teach the boys, particularly poor boys, reading, the Scriptures, prayers, and common things." In 1680, the supervision of the schools was given to the consistory, and provision was made for a class of teachers. On this basis and the regulations of 1704, the schools stood till July 9, 1855, when a new school-law was enacted by the legislative assembly, by which the superintendence is given to a State-board, consisting of one legal, one ecclesiastical, and one teaching member. Subordinate to this are four district-boards, each consisting of the highest civil officer for the district, one clergyman, and two teachers. The immediate management of the schools rests with a local committee, consisting of the parish minister, the chief civil officer, the principal teacher, and two citizens chosen by the parents for six years.

Quite recently (Nov., 1868,) a contest has sprung up between the

common council of Arolsen and the Minister of Public Instruction at Berlin, as to the right of presentation to the vacant mastership of the higher burgher-school in the capital of Waldeck. The Minister refuses to concede the privilege of one instead of three years voluntary service in the army to graduates of this school, unless he is vested with the right of presentation.

The system of public instruction embraces 117 elementary or common schools, 6 higher or burgher-schools, and a gymnasium, with a real-school in parallel classes.

The 117 elementary schools employ 171 teachers for 9,681 pupils. The expense is borne partly by the State, partly by communes, and partly by parents. In the larger towns, (with a population of 2,000 to 5,000,) the burgher-schools give a course of instruction as thorough and extensive as in any part of Germany. In Arolsen the high-school has 8 classes, with 78 pupils in the real-classes, and 160 in the elementary classes, each with a well trained teacher. The burgher-school in Wildungen (with a population of 2,000,) was the old Latin school of the sixteenth century, and has 400 pupils in 7 classes. The gymnasium at Corbach (8,000 inhabitants,) has 7 classes with a regular classical course, and 4 classes, branching off into scientific studies at the end of the third year, under 11 teachers, all of whom are university men. The State appropriates 4,850 thalers to this school.

There being no seminary for teachers in Waldeck, candidates are allowed an annual stipend for three years, to prepare for teaching in any German normal school. A provisional appointment is made after a successful examination before the central board at Arolsen, and a commission to teach is issued after one year's trial. After three years' successful experience, teachers rank as civil officers. As such they are entitled to one-third of their salaries if they become invalids, and to pensions after a certain number of years' service, and their widows or orphan children receive a fourth part of the last year's income.

The salaries of teachers, besides a residence of at least three rooms, a garden, pasturage of a cow, and fuel, varies from 150 to 300 thalers in the rural districts, and from 200 to 450 in the towns. In the capital the salaries are as high as 800 th., besides residence. The children of teachers are exempt from all payments for tuition.

[Communicated by Dr. Wimmer, of Dresden.]

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN WURTEMBERG.

TERRITORY—POPULATION—HISTORY.

THE kingdom of Wurtemberg (between 47° 35' and 49° 35' N. Lat., and between 25° 52' and 28° 9' E. Long.) contains 354 geographical square miles, and, according to the census of December, 1867, 1,778,478 inhabitants, of whom there are 1,220,199 of the Evangelical denomination; 543,601 Roman Catholics; 3,017 of other Christian denominations; and 11,662 Jews.

The former duchy of Wurtemberg was nearly doubled in extent and number of inhabitants during the Napoleonic wars from 1803 to 1810. It contained, according to the census of 1793, about 160 geographical square miles, and 637,165 inhabitants, who were all Lutherans except 5,000 Catholics, and 2,000 Calvinists.

Great mortality among children in some districts of the country, the civil laws of marriage, and the migratory instincts of the Swabian branch of the Germans—only one-eighth of the inhabitants being Franconians—explain the very slow increase of the population. Some observers have given it as their opinion, that the time will not be very distant when the number of persons of Swabian descent living abroad, particularly in the United States, will be larger than the number of those living at home.*

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF POPULAR EDUCATION.

The first steps taken in the old duchy of Wurtemberg toward the education of the people and the development of public schools, are the same as in other Protestant districts of the German Empire prior to 1600.

The *German* schools, as the public schools were then generally, and are still sometimes called, encountered many obstacles before they could be firmly established. They had to conquer prejudices, want of interest, want of proper teachers, and the opposition of the Latin schools, which, by their teaching the then general language of the learned, supplied all that the public service in State and Church required, and which considered an education acquired by the mother tongue as injurious to their interests. The establishment of German schools was, therefore, in some districts, prohibited, and some schools, already in operation, were discontinued. Duke Christopher, most fortunately, possessed the talent

* During the period from 1854 to 1864 there emigrated, mostly to the United States, 65,995 persons from Wurtemberg. *Wurtemberg Annals*, 1864, p. 116.

necessary for the great task of introducing order into his country, so violently disturbed by the religious and political troubles of the century. He it was, who in his "Organization of the Church," in 1559,* gave the first permanent regulations for the instruction of the children of the common people, regulations which were accepted and imitated in other districts of Germany. The branches of instruction were reading, writing, committing to memory the Catechism, and the Calendar names; for instruction in arithmetic the duke established particular schools. The regulations of this wise and faithful prince contain all the principles which ruled the German schools for a long period, and which established the rights and duties of the government concerning public education. The administration and superintendence of the schools were vested in the Church, yet not to such an extent that the schools could be called a domain of the clergy, or that the interests of the secular power were altogether sacrificed to those of the Church.

The last link which closes the chain of developments of our public schools in this first period of their history, is Duke Eberhard Louis' "Renewed organization of the German school," published, June, 1729, and republished in 1782. These regulations clearly show Spener's influence by the strongly pronounced doctrine of the religious character of the public schools; that the school is the portico of the temple; Christianity is its principal work; schools should not be considered as mere establishments preparatory to public life, but be pervaded by a religious spirit. They also contain not a small number of practical hints concerning the treatment of the different branches of instruction, and concerning the discipline. Arithmetic is declared to be "a necessity for the pursuits of a citizen's life," and it is prescribed that all pupils should learn the first four combinations of whole numbers, and the more clever and advanced in addition, the rule of three and vulgar fractions. In general, this school organization is a well arranged, fatherly guide for the teacher, from which, even in our time, something might be learned, particularly in regard to what is said about the educational duties and the conscience of teachers.

It is clear from these remarks that our public schools had all the characteristics of Government establishments, but that their object was the spiritual and temporal welfare of the people. The Reformation of the sixteenth century had, in both respects, the greatest influence on the schools; for it was the Reformation which revived evangelical Christianity, and with it the evangelical spirit of sympathy with the lowly and poor among the people; it was the Reformation which, at the same time, procured for the governments that liberty, which allowed them to offer to the people such intellectual food as would be useful. It is, however, true, that the instruction comprised only that which was the most absolutely needed; that only the most modest demands of education

* Eisenlohr, collection of Wurtemberg school laws in Reyscher's collection of Wurtemberg laws, Vol. xi, Section 1, page 2, sqy.

were satisfied ; and even these not always, as the often renewed instructions, and the reports following the frequent school visitations show.

The German schools in Wurtemberg received a new impulse at the end of the last century, mainly by the great development of the science of teaching in North Germany, and by the change in theological views. Not only was a greater stress laid on the method of teaching, but a greater variety of subjects to be taught was desired ; in general, more attention was paid to the useful, and, in religious matters, to practical morals.* Thus the Circular of the General Synod of November, 1787, (Eisenlohr, page 72) describes the German schools to be "those nurseries in which should be taught the true and genuine idea of the duties of men—created with a reasoning soul—toward God, government, their fellow-men, and themselves, and also at least the first rudiments of useful and indispensable knowledge." And in the Circular of December, 1795, (page 72) the Synod desires that the pupils should be taught calligraphy and orthography, not only by copies which treat of religious and moral subjects, but also by those taken from sacred and profane history, natural philosophy, and agriculture." Rochow's "Children's Friend" was recommended and much used, and it must not be imagined that our German school had by these innovations become a stranger to its origin. The noble Rochow was animated by the same Christian piety in which the public school originated ; horizon and objects alone had been enlarged. The Circulars in Wurtemberg always avoided supercilious remarks, so frequent elsewhere, on the former methods of instruction, nor did they indulge in any of that exaggeration in respect to demands and promises, of which modern pedagogy is guilty, (Basedow, &c.) On the contrary, a moderate restraint was deemed necessary in order to give proper direction to the desire for progress, and "to prevent exaggeration and digression into wrong paths," and "to prevent glittering appearance from taking the place of reality." The most advanced progressists were, therefore, admonished not to pass beyond the legitimate sphere of their activity, and thus impair their usefulness in their profession. "It was never our wish," says the Circular of January, 1799, (page 105) "to see the German schoolmasters taking their position among the savants. Nor do we wish the children at the German schools to be crammed with knowledge that lies beyond their sphere, and which they can never practically apply." "The whole attention of the teachers of the German schools should be directed to this one object, viz., that the young should not only acquire the knowledge necessary for their

* Less religious matter was committed to memory, yet the practice of committing to memory was not underestimated. Teachers and clergymen were desired to make practical religion their principal object, because "on the one hand the hearts of the young become the more impressed with the love of virtue, when they understand the connection of revealed religion with a morally pure life ; and because, on the other hand, religious dogmas can not be considered of advantage to pupils of immature age."—*Gen. Synod, Jan. 16, 1799.* Eisenlohr, p. 106.

Reason and revealed religion should be brought into close connection ; the evidences of Christianity should be communicated, but its authority should be derived from the higher and surer source of Divine revelation.—p. 107.

practical life, but also that the germs of virtue be fructified even in children of the most tender age ; that the love of what is good and moral be excited, that vague ideas be defined and developed, and the children be taught how to bring these rules into practical application."

These and similar remarks show the influence of the ruling ideas and systems in science and theology on the Wurtemberg schools, and with what discretion they were assimilated.

In harmony with this development of the science and method of teaching, are the efforts made for the elevation of the standard of the schools and of the people. Thus, a more vigorous attempt was made to enforce general attendance at school even during the summer season ; the at first voluntary, but later obligatory, attendance at Sunday-schools of those pupils of both sexes who had left the public school ; efforts to improve the pecuniary condition of the teachers and their mental training ; the protection of the teachers by government against contemptuous treatment, and demands upon them unworthy of their position ; protection of the schools against the capriciousness, partiality and stupidity of such communities as, possessing the privilege of appointing teachers, pay no attention to the ability of the candidate, allowing themselves to be guided by other considerations. The German schools were, therefore, in a fair way of improvement in every respect and in agreement with the demands of the age, when the century closed and the duchy began to increase in area and population.

But when the duchy had annexed several free imperial towns and some territories of ecclesiastical and lay princes, new duties in regard to public instruction and new principles for the administration of the different interests arose. Conflicting interests were to be harmonized ; for in some of the recently-acquired districts there were no schools, whilst in others they were considerably advanced. Some Roman Catholic schools in the territory formerly Austrian, were in a very flourishing condition, having enjoyed the fostering care of abbot Felbiger, and later, during the reign of Joseph II, of the noble Wessenberg. There was, further, a carefully-organized school in the secularized abbey of Neresheim, owing its success to the care of the prelate Benedict Marie, the prebendary father Beda Brecher, and his successor, father Charles Nack. Thus the country had not only acquired land, but also educational talent. Very soon new and comprehensive arrangements were made for both religious parties. King Frederic issued two decrees concerning a new organization of public instruction ; the one for the Catholic elementary schools, September, 1808, (Eisenlohr, page 135, sqy ;) the other for the German elementary schools in the evangelical portions of the kingdom, December, 1810, (page 229.)

These two decrees contain and confirm much which had been in operation in Wurtemberg before, *e. g.* the general obligation to attend school, the session during the summer, and the Sunday-schools ; but they contain, also, many new arrangements. They were henceforth, and are

still, the foundation of the school organisation, though in some respects changed by more recent decrees. Both have elementary instruction in view, and prescribe reading, writing, singing, arithmetic, religion, ethics, German language; further instruction in "common things" in Rochow's sense, (whose "Children's Friend" and Becker's "Assistant" were prepared for Catholics only,)* history, geography, natural history and philosophy, agriculture, hygiene, are mentioned in the Catholic catalogue, yet it is remarked that they shall only be taught in town-schools, and only so far as local considerations will allow. The instruction, moreover, cautions against the overworking of the children, and remarks that the object is not so much cramming as development of the mind. The Evangelical instruction requires but a few principles of the natural sciences and of geography, and a few facts of history and natural history, but desires, on the other hand, attention to methodical singing, (*Nägeli*,) and drawing, though less in village schools than in towns, and prescribes in arithmetic Pestalozzi's tables of units, with exercises. The Catholic instruction makes drawing and geometry to be taught in industrial schools. Both organizations are evidently influenced by Pestalozzi's method; the Catholic organization seeks to develop the power of attention and of observation by intellectual exercises; the Evangelical seeks a general and harmonious development of the mental faculties. Yet this method was not to reign long. Mr. Zeller, inspector of schools, was called from Prussia in 1809 in order to deliver a course of lectures on Pestalozzi's method for teachers and ministers of both denominations in Heilbron. But the Evangelical school authorities found it necessary, in October of the same year, to give caution against the unskillful application of that method, and to desire that it should not be introduced into any school without special permission. A royal order of February 1st, 1812, says: "We command you to avoid, once for all, every thing in any plan of study which may have any relation to Pestalozzi's method, which we expressly forbid in all public institutions." This occurred during the time of resolute absolutism. There were, most likely, no political reasons, for Fichte had delivered in the winter of 1808-9 his speeches to the German nation, in which the praises of Pestalozzi's method were intended to cover deeper political objects in order to deceive the French spies in Berlin. It appears that the king had been vexed by some exaggerations; yet his ordinance was not able to extinguish the good and practical portions of the system, which were at that time certainly overestimated; and for many years could be traced in various ways the effects of the one-sided culture of formalistic exercises of reasoning.

* The Catholic school ordinance recommends libraries which should contain, besides the two books mentioned above, the New Testament, by Van Bee; Schmidt's Bible History; Ernesti's Good Manners and Hygiene; Weber on The Falseness of the Belief in Witches and Ghosts, and several other religious and useful books written by Catholics. It is, however, expected that also those books be bought that are written by and for Protestants, *e. g.* those of Niemeyer, Schlez, Funcker, Rieman, Stephan, Pestalozzi, &c., so far as they are not in antagonism with Catholic principles.

Both organizations holding the same views concerning the influence of common schools on the public welfare, desired to connect the elementary school with the industrial school. But local peculiarities and want of proper female teachers prevented a more than partial realization of the plan.

The increased claims on the schools necessarily led to demands for better educated teachers; hence the establishment of normal schools, (teachers' seminaries,) viz., for Evangelical teachers at Esslingen in 1811, under the very efficient direction of Denzel; for Catholic teachers at Gemund in 1824-25; there were, besides, smaller institutions of that class in connection with orphan asylums; and courses of lectures for teachers, teachers' conferences, and teachers' reading clubs, were established in the different school districts.

The method of inspection of the Evangelical schools was not changed by the new school organization; the minister of the parish remained local inspector; the deacon, together with the secular authorities, were inspectors of the district. The Catholic school organization had to perform the task of regulating the existing elements essentially analogous to the Evangelic organization, with this difference, that not the deacons but other ecclesiastics were (by the government) made district school inspectors, which may be considered to be a clearer expression of the legal position of the public school.

Both organizations made the first modest attempts at ameliorating the condition of the teachers in reference to their salaries. Very few received a regular salary; the schoolmasters, had their board and lodging as sacristans, cantors or organists, in the service of the church, and earned a little money by tuition-fees; they lived therefore in very straightened circumstances, except in towns and large villages. The assistants received mostly no remuneration at all, only board and lodging from the schoolmaster, and held about the same position to the latter as apprentices hold to their masters. Taking these circumstances into account, it must be considered a progress, when, for example, the Catholic school organization caused the communities to pay the teacher from the treasury for each child, during the winter, 2 kreutzers; during the summer, 1 kreutzer a week, and for the Sunday-school 12 florins a year, and to give him the necessary fuel at once for the whole year, instead of causing each child to bring each week one billet during the winter. The Evangelical organization tried to go a little farther, by establishing not only in smaller chapels at once a schoolmaster-ship, but also fixing the minimum of teachers' salaries at 150 florins, to be raised to 300 florins, according to the condition of the treasury, and giving the assistant teacher a salary of from 120 to 180 florins. But these well-intended regulations fell upon a very sterile soil. They were made when the strength of the State, of the communities, and of the citizens, was completely exhausted by the long war; then followed several years of famine and a general depreciation of the products of agriculture, and general financial ruin. Thus

these regulations remained, together with those respecting the pension of teachers enacted by the Constitution of 1819, nothing but promises on paper. A long time passed away before the system of public education was legally settled on a firm foundation. It is gratifying to state, that with the recovery of the country from its depressed condition, and with the increase of general prosperity, the care for the prosperity of the schools and the material welfare of the teachers has kept pace.

The first really comprehensive law concerning public schools was issued on Sept. 26, 1836, (Eisenlohr, page 657, sqy.) It is divided into six sections, viz.:

1. The object of public schools.
2. Obligation to attend school.
3. Their organization and maintenance.
4. Private instruction.
5. The teachers, (a) number, grade, and salary; (b) education; (c) appointment and discharge; (d) aid when an invalid; (e) assistance of widows and children.
6. Superintendence of public schools.

This law, which is the framework for all future legislation, and in all its essential parts in operation at the present time, is an honor to the names of King William and his minister Von Schlager, and has established clearness and firm order in the legal relations, and in the administration, of the public schools. Yet in regard to the teachers' salaries, it is not free from the narrow-mindedness of former years, and it should not be forgotten that a general satisfaction was expressed, when, after the discussion of the law in the Chamber of Deputies, the minimum of a teacher's salary was fixed by vote at 200 florins, (the higher degrees are 250 and 300, the highest 350 florins; for tutors 150 florins, and for assistants 120 florins.) A large number of candidates was the immediate consequence of this resolution. But there is another point worthy of remark in this law, reminding us of the narrow-minded caution of former years. It was intended to increase the number of teachers in order to decrease the average number of the pupils of each teacher. In order to diminish the expenses of the community, the latter received permission to employ a number of "temporary" teachers, quite out of proportion. The consequences of this expedient were soon felt: delay of permanent appointment, and discouragement of the temporary teachers. Many left to seek employment in other occupations, and few candidates offered their services.

The insufficiency of the salary of teachers of the lower grade could be amended by additional pay from the State treasury; but the second mistake could only be amended by the legislature. The chief of the department, Mr. von Rümelin, took this step, by proposing an additional act of Nov. 6th, 1858, in which he changes the relative salary of permanent and temporary teacher greatly in favor of the former; further he recommended the employment of females as temporary teachers, and fixed the

minimum of a teacher's salary at 300 florins, (the higher grades 325, 350, 400 and 450 florins,) that of a tutor at 180 florins and half a cord of wood; that of assistants at 110 florins and 5 bushels of spelt. He lastly proposed that a part of a teacher's salary, in value of at least 50 florins, should be paid in cereals and vegetables, in order to prevent distress in years of scarcity.

But even these amendments to the law of 1836 have proved to be ineffective, and king Charles caused therefore his minister von Golther to concert with the legislature (May 25th, 1865,) a second amendment, by which the relative salaries of the temporary and permanent teachers were again improved. This amendment will be stated more in detail in connection with the latest legislative acts in reference to public schools, in a subsequent chapter. These three laws are general, without regard to religious creed, and are fully explained in the "motives" of the government and the report of the committee of the Chamber. They may be found in the following publication: "The law on public schools of Sept. 29th, 1836, with the amendments and additions of Nov. 6, 1858, and May 25th, 1865, by C. Ulmer, 1865." The collection of laws concerning public schools by Eisenlohr, embraces the period from 1546 to March 1st, 1839, and gives in the Introduction an instructive review of the development of public instruction during these three hundred years. Rich in detail of the past and present time is the edition of "The Law concerning public instruction in the kingdom of Wurtemberg of Sept. 29th, 1836, by Süskind." Part I, 1845; Part II, 1860.

The circulars and decrees since 1860 may be found in different educational publications, viz.: for the Evangelical organization, in the "Weekly publication of rector Stockmeier," in the South-German "School Messenger," by Völter, in the "Public School," by L. Hartmann; also in the "School and Teacher's Almanac," published for the benefit of the Evangelical School Teachers' Association. For the Catholic organization in "Magazine of Pedagogy and Catholic Weekly," by Haug in Gemund, and "Quarterly for Education and Instruction," by Straessle, in Neckarsulm. These periodicals give also instruction concerning the views and ideas which prevail among the teachers. More detail can be found in the "Statistical hand-books of the Evangelical schools," (Wieler,) and in the "Catholic Public Schools," (Arand and Ulmer.) The Wurtemberg Annual Register, published by the Royal Statistical and Topographical Bureau, contains materials also for this branch of public life. Also see "The Kingdom of Wurtemberg: a description of the country, the people, and the State." Stuttgart, 1868. Nitzschke.

II. GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

The obligation to attend school is general, and extends to all the children of the citizens of the kingdom, unless they receive the proper instruction elsewhere. There are some rare cases of conscientious resistance to this law on record. Thus, in 1808, twenty-five children

of separatists were lodged in the orphan asylum by decree of government. The police is instructed to proceed against peddlers, tramps, Bohemians, who cause their children to accompany them; children of abandoned persons, who go begging, and are idle instead of attending school, are either lodged in an asylum for abandoned children, or are taken care of in one of the many institutions established by private charity. There are, then, in Wurtemberg only such children deprived of the benefit of instruction as can not possibly derive any advantage from their attending school, and our country belongs, therefore, to those in which attendance at school is carried into effect as regards all or almost all.* The children of this country are even obliged to attend school when they have removed to any of those states (Baden, Bavaria, and Prussian Hohenzollern,) with which a treaty has been concluded. There are also laws against truants, the local school-inspectors being obliged to give information to one another when a family removes from one place to another. Children of poor families, who are obliged to earn their bread as servants, need only attend school twice a week; but this permission will very likely be withdrawn.

The obligation to attend school begins for both boys and girls with the seventh, and terminates with the fourteenth year. Well developed children are received at school in their sixth year; nor can pupils be denied the privilege of staying one more year, after the expiration of their fourteenth year, in order to complete their education. If a child should show any unusual deficiencies, its obligation to attend school may be prolonged for one or two years more. A discharge from school before the fourteenth year requires special permission, founded on urgent family necessities, physical development, particularly of girls, and intellectual proficiency.

The discharge from school coincides mostly with the confirmation of the Evangelical and the first communion of the Catholic pupils. This is founded on a popular custom, though the permission to be admitted to the church rites, and the discharge from school, can not be determined on from the same point of view, nor do both depend on the same department of the government.

The boys and girls are not altogether relieved of their obligation to attend school after their discharge. They must attend Sunday-school till they have attained their eighteenth year, from which obligation only those are excused who either go to a higher school, or to a Sunday industrial school, or receive instruction otherwise satisfactory to the local school-board. The obligation to attend the Church Sunday-school lasts, with the Evangelical youths, likewise till their eighteenth year; with those of the Catholic faith a few years longer. The punctual attendance at Sunday-school can not, however, be enforced with the same rigor as that at the common day-school; family servants and laborers change their employers in the larger towns frequently, so that a control over

* See Wurtemberg Annual Register, 1865, page 115.

them is very difficult; but, then, more opportunity is offered to them to continue their education in such towns by the many institutions that are accessible to them. Girls living in towns are frequently excused from attendance at Sunday-school one or two years before the legal time has expired. In the country, however, the government can carry out the law without opposition, as the old people consider the attendance at school of unmarried young people a good discipline, and therefore favor it.

The people have hitherto not doubted the right of the government to enforce attendance at school, and are not likely to do so unless the public school should be, very imprudently, secularized, and thus be prevented from devoting the proper time to the religious instruction of the young. Although the obligation to receive instruction is general and absolute, yet there is no absolute compulsion to receive it at the public schools, for the parents have the undisputed right to have their children taught either by private tutors or at private schools. The private teacher, whose instruction is intended to take the place of that of the public school, must, however, have obtained the certificate of competency from the State department of education, and be licensed to teach; his pupils must be present at the periodical examinations of the public school; and the local school authorities alone can decide whether the pupils are sufficiently advanced to be excused from further private instruction. Private schools, intended to take the place of public schools, must have obtained the license of the department of education, and are not allowed to employ other teachers than those of whose competency and moral worth the department has convinced itself. Such educational establishments are under the superintendence of the school authorities in regard to the general plan of instruction, discipline, and conduct of the teachers; a license can be withdrawn as a consequence of obstinate disobedience to the rulings of the superintending authorities.

It follows from these observations, that the general obligation to obtain instruction is modified by the rights of the parents, limited so much as to prevent abuse. The State requires of every inhabitant a certain measure of intellectual education; she provides every where for the proper institutions to obtain it, but she does not compel a youth to receive that education at the public institution, whenever the object can be safely reached by other means. Attempts have been made not only to establish the obligation to obtain proper instruction, but also to obtain it at the public schools alone; these attempts were made by those who consider all education of the people to be founded on public instruction, and who wished to render the school a domain of the public teachers.

The obligation to establish and to support public schools rests with the Communities. Every place which constitutes a community is legally bound to maintain one, or, if necessary, more schools, (the legal maximum of pupils is ninety to one teacher.) A place which constitutes part of a community, but is inhabited by at least thirty families, must, as a rule,

establish a school; it may, however, establish a "district-school" jointly with a neighboring place, the distance from which is not greater than one hour's walk. Neighboring places of less than thirty families each, establish jointly a school, called "district-school;" if, however, the distance between them should be more than one hour's walk, or if the way should endanger the life or health of the scholars, separate schools may be ordered to be established, though there be only fifteen resident families.

The expenses of public schools, unless provided for by special revenues or by legal titles, must be defrayed by the community, which may levy a tax for that purpose equally on the inhabitants, without regard to denominations. The special revenues are derived either from local educational foundations or from receipts for educational purposes only. Thus the treasury of the community that has to pay the salaries, collects the tuition fees of the day-scholars, whilst the school-fund, which has to pay the expenses for apparatus, &c., and which is at the disposal of the local school-board, receives annually six kreutzers for each weekly and Sunday scholar, also the collection at church on confirmation and first communion day, the fines paid for absences from school, and the surplus arising from vacancies, after deducting the expenses for substitutes. The amount of tuition fee originally depended on custom; yet in communities which defray the school expenses by taxation, a school-tax of from forty-eight kreutzers to one florin, twelve kreutzers, according to the population, *must* be levied, but may be increased by vote of the council and permission of the district government. The children of teachers pay no fees; the children of indigent parents, particularly when more than one child of such a family attends school, may be wholly or partly excused from payment, according to the finding of the local school-board. The parish as such, irrespective of the denominational school voluntarily established, participates in defraying the expenses of education, because there are teachers who derive part of their income from remunerations for particular services in church, as sacristans, cantors or organists. Owners of landed property, corporations, and private individuals, who by ancient laws were bound to certain observances, are relieved of them since the legislation of 1840 and 1865, by paying a moderate sum of money as an equivalent; their former obligations (schoolhouse building and repair,) have since passed over to the communities, or (salaries) to the State. The latter is moreover obliged by the school-law of 1836 to contribute toward teachers' salaries and the building of schoolhouses in those places which are unable to raise the money.

The expenses of the district-schools are borne by the families of those places that have established them, in proportion to their number. Many objections have been raised against this law, because it weighs much more heavily on a place with many families with small means than on another with few wealthy families. But, on the one hand, it has been hitherto impossible to find out a juster method of distributing taxation;

on the other hand, such places adjust either the matter among themselves in a satisfactory manner, or the State comes to the assistance of the sufferers.

The public schools, by their general character and the general obligation to attend them, appear to be institutions of the community; but they have preserved, at the same time, their historical character of denominational schools. For the denomination that constitutes the majority in a place legally determines the denomination of the teacher to be employed, of the inspecting officers, of the text-books, and even of the method of instruction, so far as the denomination is concerned, though proper regard must be paid to the pupils of other denominations. Again, the minority may legally claim the establishment and maintenance of a public school of its denomination by the community, provided it consist of at least sixty families, who pay personal taxes as citizens or landed proprietors or manufacturers; a condition which was natural under the former principles of taxation, but which does not appear justifiable since a tax on income from professional occupation or investment of capital has been introduced. The minority may further claim the legal right to establish, at their own expense, a denominational school either for themselves or jointly with members of the same denomination in a neighboring place. The denominational character is lastly clearly expressed by the law stating that in places where there are schools for the different denominations, the children shall attend the school of their parents' denomination;—a law which, however, is not applied to those schools which aim higher than the common public school. The obligation to attend the denominational school has, however, a more limited application than the general obligation; for if there be no school for the minority, the parents are authorized either to send their children to the public school of the place where they reside, or to a neighboring school of their own denomination, and that right is also preserved to these members, if the district-school should be nearer than any public school of their own denomination.

The peculiar position held by the Jewish schools will be later explained.

The organization of the State department of education bears the same mixed secular and ecclesiastical character as the school itself. The latter, being legally a State institution, as is particularly emphasized in the law of 1836, it is subject to the supreme authority of the mixed department of ecclesiastical and school affairs; the legislature, itself without any denominational character, makes the laws regulating the attendance at school, teachers' salaries, method of instruction, superintendence, and administration. The State assists the schools with increasing liberality. But the central administration of public education is divided according to denominations. The Catholic ecclesiastical board—composed of clerical and lay officers, and representing the supremacy of the State over the Catholic Church—has been made, at the same time, the Catholic central school-board, increasing the number of its members by one lay-

man, who has been educated as a teacher. Yet the superintendence over the religious instruction at the public schools and all other public and private educational institutions, as well as the selection of catechisms and religious text-books, is vested in the bishop. The Evangelical consistory has the undivided control over the Evangelical schools and the Evangelical church; the number of its members having, of late, been increased by two counselors of public education. These two central boards have the joint superintendence over all school officials, the seminaries for teachers, all other establishments connected with schools, the proper repair of school-houses, the donations, nominations, and appointments of teachers, and the whole system of public instruction—without interfering with the episcopal privileges in Catholic schools. Both boards send delegates throughout the country, for the purpose of completing the information about the condition of the schools, otherwise obtained by regular reports. The six general church superintendents are also members of the Evangelical branch of the department, who, as delegates of the consistory, superintend the teachers and ministers of their district, visit the schools, collect the reports on school visitations made by the district school superintendents, and report once a year to the consistory on the condition of the schools. In each district, active ministers are revocably appointed as school superintendents. The deacons were, until recently, appointed as Evangelical superintendents; the respect for their position in the church has frequently induced the parishioners to do something for the schools; but, at present, the offices of deacon and school superintendent are no longer vested in one person, which renders it possible to employ younger men, more able to keep up with the rapid progress of education.

The district inspectors, to whom are subordinate not only the teachers but also the ministers as local school inspectors, are the organs of the State department of education in every thing relating to schools; they are bound to visit all schools of their district—the Catholics once a year, the Evangelicals once in two years—to assist in the continued education of the teachers by teachers' conferences, to interest themselves in the proper education of candidates for the position as teachers, and to assist and advise the younger assistants. The *Amtmann* (magistrate) and the school-inspector compose the school-board for the district, superintend the condition of schools, the attendance, the school-funds, the salaries, the school-houses; they investigate and report on the serious offenses of teachers, whilst they may punish minor offenses by reprimands.

The special and technical local superintendence of schools is the duty of the minister of the denomination to which the schoolmaster belongs; if there be several ministers, one of them will be appointed by the State department. He has to enforce the strict observance of the laws, to watch the faithful attendance to their duties and the conduct of the teachers, and is bound to visit the schools twice a week officially, as well as to give the religious instruction. When, however, there are many

schools, the State department will appoint a number of teachers as "inspecting teachers," who share the labors of superintending the schools with the minister. When a school consists of several classes, teachers' conferences are regularly held, the inspector presiding. Their object is to regulate the plan and method of studies and discipline, and to discuss all suggestions which tend to increase the efficiency of the school. The intention in instituting these conferences is, to complete the local inspection, to produce more unity and regularity in the course of studies, and, lastly, to allow the teachers a direct participation in the inspection. For it is encouraging to well educated and able teachers, and must produce favorable results for the school, when they share in its administration. On the other hand, the most recent legislation has not been willing to excuse the clergymen from their duty of inspecting the schools; the country, which has liberally provided for and educated the theologians of both denominations from their fourteenth year to the time when they enter the service of the church, has a well earned right to expect that they should assist the young by their thorough studies of humanistics, mathematics and exact sciences, and that they should complete what the teachers leave undone, or support them by their authority. Though our legislation acknowledges no *right* of the clergy to inspect the schools, it claims their services in the intellectual and religious branches of school labors.

There is organized in each community, moreover, a local school-board—the church convention—consisting of all the ministers, the mayor or bailiff, the administrator of the donation funds, and some members of the town-council, to whom is added the schoolmaster (or if there be many, three of them at most) and as many citizens of the community as there are teachers, elected by the fathers and guardians of all the children attending school. All these members have now the right of casting their votes, whilst, formerly, the teachers were only permitted to offer their opinions. The right of election, established by the law of 1865, has, however, nowhere been carried into effect, which might be considered to be a mark of confidence, if it were not, perhaps, a mark of indifference, shown also in town elections. It is the duty of that board to see to the execution of the school laws and regulations; in general, to promote the interests of the school, to enforce regular attendance at school, to be present during examinations, to prepare new and necessary arrangements, and to administer the school funds. The board is entitled to exhort and to reprimand teachers for neglect of duty or improper conduct, and is obliged to assist them in every way, particularly in the enforcement of discipline, in cases of dispute about salary and their legal dwelling. The board shall also mediate between teachers, and between them and the parents in cases of conflicts and complaints. The clergyman highest in rank and the mayor preside at the meetings jointly; in cases of discipline the latter alone, when the clergymen are not allowed to vote.

The local school-boards and the school-inspectors are subordinate to the local police-board, to the district school-inspector, and to the government of the district, in all matters concerning the school.

When children belong to a denomination different from that of the school attended by them, the local minister of their denomination has no power over them; yet he may communicate his observations to the local school-board, and, if necessary, to the department.

Jewish children, whose attendance at school was first regulated in 1825, must go to the Christian school, when there is none of their own creed. The Hebrew school children are subject to the authority of the local minister of the dominating Christian denomination, and, therefore, also to that of the district board and State department, to whom the minister is subordinate. One portion of these schools is, therefore, subordinate to the Evangelical consistory, the other to the Catholic ecclesiastical board. There were, according to the census of 1865, fourteen Jewish common schools and twenty-three private schools; of the former seven, of the latter seventeen, were under the consistory; the others under the ecclesiastical board. The inspection concerning the conduct of the teachers, punishment for truancy, the periodical visitations, and the economical administration, is regulated by the Christian minister, the mayor, the elected members of the Israelite community, and, if a rabbi be resident, by him also. The latter has to satisfy himself of the condition of the religious instruction by examination, and to report to his church authority thereon.

III. STATISTICAL REMARKS.

The latest census, of May 30th, 1865, contains the following table concerning children attending the week-day schools:

<i>a</i> , of the Evangelical denomination,	159,482
<i>b</i> , " " Catholic "	69,820
<i>c</i> , " " Israelite "	1,538
<i>d</i> , " " other denominations,	872

In all, 230,712

Now the number of inhabitants amounted, Dec. 4th, 1864, to 1,862,744, and Dec. 4th, 1865, to 1,872,032; average, 1,867,884. There were, therefore, of school children, 12.85 per cent. of the population, or increased by the 9,196 scholars of schools of a higher class, 12.8 per cent. This must appear a small number compared with other German states, *e. g.* with Hanover, where there were 16 per cent.* An explanation may be found in the great mortality of children, in the emigration of so many persons in the full vigor of life, and perhaps also in the law of 1858, according to which the obligation to attend school begins with the seventh year, (in 1855 there were 290,448 pupils in public common schools, and 10,000 in Latin and Real schools, *i. e.* 17.7 per cent. of the popu-

* Wurtemberg Annals, 1865, p. 114.

lation,) for the number of children that do not attend school is very small, and is confined to those who are from physical causes prevented, or who receive instruction by private tuition.

The ratio of schools consisting of one class to those of several classes, and the number of classes of the latter, is variable, because want of teachers or money may cause the schools to change their divisions in classes into sections of one class. Of the 1,884 Evangelical schools, more than one-half have but one class, more than one-third two classes, about one-tenth three classes, and about one-twenty-sixth four classes. Of 797 Catholic schools, more than five-eighths have but one class, more than one-fourth two classes, about one-sixteenth three classes, and about one fifty-third four classes. This should not be overlooked, when judging of the task to be performed by our public schools.

There were in 1868, (Jan. 1st,) 3,645 teachers, (2,457 Evangelical, 1,188 Catholic,) viz. : 2,721 schoolmasters, (1,806 Evangelical, 915 Catholic,) 275 teachers, (192 Evangelical, 83 Catholic,) 649 assistants, (459 Evangelical, 190 Catholic.) The ratio of permanent to provisional teachers is nearly as three to one, which shows an improvement on that before the legislation of 1858 and 1865. The number of permanently appointed teachers (schoolmasters) in 1867, (Jan. 1st,) was 2,590 ; the number of the not definitely appointed teachers, assistants, and substitutes, was 1,094, among whom were 44 female teachers, (24 Evangelical, 20 Catholic.) On an average there is 1 teacher to 67 pupils and to 515 inhabitants.

The number of school-districts is variable and amounts at present to 92, (54 Evangelical, 38 Catholic ;) there are still 20 Evangelical districts in which the superintendence of both church and school is vested in the deacon. The number of Evangelical schools of one district varies between 4 and 51, of Catholic schools between 11 and 38 ; of Evangelical teachers between 12 and 70, of Catholic teachers between 17 and 48. On an average, there are 23 schools and 40 teachers to one district. The public schools for all pupils from their seventh to their fourteenth year are day-schools ; Sunday-schools, established in other countries for children who are employed in factories, &c., during the week, are not known to the Wurtemberg law. There are a few schools, called poor schools, as in Ulm, in which children of both sexes of that class receive instruction during two hours every week day and Sunday. A few factory schools are established at places where a large number of children are employed as laborers ; the local school authorities make in such cases an arrangement which satisfies the considerations due to instruction, to health, and to the exigencies of factory labor. Such schools are established in Altenstedt and Keechen ; they are patterns of organization and success. The school-authorities of places where school-children are employed in factories, are bound to superintend them strictly, and to report every year on the number of children thus employed, their age, and the number of hours they are daily employed in the factory and at

school. Art. 44 of the law passed Feb. 12th, 1862, says: "The employment of children and youth, not yet eighteen years old, in factories, must not interfere with their going to church and school, and must not endanger their health, physical development, and religious and moral education." These restrictions are commanded by humanity, and by the consideration that industrial establishments are better served by young persons physically and intellectually well developed, than by those whose working power has been prematurely exhausted. There are, however, comparatively few families in the country that wholly depend on factory labor; many young persons, particularly girls, work till they have reached a certain age, in factories, and then devote themselves to field or domestic labor. Experience has taught that the attention and punctuality required in factories favorably influence the studies of the young persons.

The public schools in town and country are not essentially different. Some large towns, as Ulm and Stuttgart, and recently also smaller towns and even villages, have, separated from their common public schools, others, called "Intermediate Schools," in which both the number of daily lessons and the extent of studies (some even embrace French) are increased. There were 19 of them (17 Evangelical, 2 Catholic,) in operation in 1865. Other schools allow extra lessons in drawing, &c., for the benefit of the more advanced and intelligent. There being in Wurtemberg no town, hardly a borough, in which the industrious boys have not offered to them a school in which they can study Latin, Greek, French, and the sciences, the public schools in towns will be mostly attended by boys of a class of the population which is on, or even below, a level with those of villages; the labor of the teachers to raise these schools to a desirable degree of proficiency, must therefore be the more arduous and deserving of thanks. Most girl-schools, in towns, are, on the contrary, attended by children of all classes of the population, though the conviction grows more and more general, that the standard of education of the girls should correspond to that of the boys.

More important than the difference of town and country, is the number and age of the pupils in charge of one teacher. The law allows 90 scholars to 1 teacher; that number may, however, rise to 120 when there is but one teacher employed, and to 180 when there are 2 or more; instruction is then given in different sections and at different hours. This instruction by sections is a rule in those schools which embrace the whole course of instruction, and are attended by more than 60 pupils. It is not unusual that the more wealthy communities employ more teachers than required by law, but others resort to the instruction by sections to avoid expenses which would be incurred not only by the necessity of paying the salary of an additional teacher, but also of providing for him lodging, which is frequently very difficult. There were, Jan. 1st, 1867, 558 teachers (464 Evangelical, 89 Catholic,) who taught by sections. This numerical disproportion of the two denominations,

and some other circumstances, brought to light by the school statistics, are explained by the fact that the Evangelical population lives mostly together in large communities, whilst the Catholic population forms a greater number of small communities, with a small population and few pupils.

Of voluntary denominational schools there were, in 1868, 8 Evangelical, 9 Catholic, 23 Israelite; together 40.

The Sunday-schools, into which the scholars pass after being discharged from the common schools, and in which they remain until they have attained their eighteenth year, are intended for further instruction in those branches of study which find a particular application in practical life. But, in reality, they barely suffice to prevent young persons who work hard day by day, from forgetting what they have learned at school. Nor can there be much more expected of an institution which offers but one hour every Sunday to the instruction of the pupils, and even but one hour every other Sunday, when not more than one teacher can be employed, as the sexes are taught separately. The law of 1858 must, therefore, be considered a progress; it confers the power on the communities to establish obligatory evening-schools for the male pupils during the winter, in place of the Sunday-schools; they have been well attended. There were 235 Evangelical and 118 Catholic—in all 353 evening-schools in operation in 1865. Other communities, however, considered a different plan more advantageous, viz., a combination of both, making the attendance at the former obligatory and at the latter voluntary. Of that class there were 287 Evangelical and 51 Catholic—in all 338 schools. The whole number of evening-schools amounted therefore to 522 Evangelical and 169 Catholic—in all, to 691. Subjects of instruction are, besides all those of the common schools, history, geography, natural philosophy, geometry, drawing, and lastly agriculture in 275 of them. Persons who are no longer obliged to attend these schools may and do take advantage of the instruction offered by them. The exercises at the regular schools appear, however, to be more effective, because the instruction given by lectures—the system adopted in evening schools—requires a more thoroughly prepared audience than that which assembles in these schools.

Another step forward is the instruction in Drawing offered to young, unmarried persons. This branch of education has long been undervalued, but finds now, with authorities, parents, and pupils of both sexes, so much favor, that it is taught even in some village schools, whilst regular, though not obligatory, instruction is given in all the schools in cities and those villages where factories are established.

Industrial Schools are in many places connected with the public schools. Their number increases with the number of trained female teachers. There were, Jan. 1st, 1867:

946 Evangelical schools of this class, with 82,092 girls and 977 boys.					
504 Catholic	"	"	"	"	17,544 " " 644 "

In all, there were 1,450 Industrial schools, with 52,157 pupils, viz., 50,536 girls and 1,621 boys.

The number of lessons given during the year in those industrial schools which are under the superintendence of the Evangelical consistory, amounted to 187,246, i. e. for 1 school 198 during the year, or 4 hours a week; and of those which are under the superintendence of the Catholic ecclesiastical board, 79,445, i. e. for 1 school 158 during the year, or 3 hours a week. The 1,210 female teachers of the former received together a remuneration amounting to 20,913 florins, or 17 florins 17 kreutzers each; the 561 female and 7 male teachers of the latter received together a remuneration of 10,048 florins, or 17 florins 40 kreutzers each. The proportion of teachers to pupils was 1 to 30. The expenses for rewards, working materials, fuel, &c., amounted in the Evangelical schools to 32,963 florins 51 kreutzers, or 34 florins 51 kreutzers for each; in the Catholic schools to 15,495 florins 6 kreutzers, or 30 florins 45 kreutzers for each. The whole expenses during the year amounted to 48,458 florins 21 kreutzers, of which the government paid 11,120 florins.

This appears to be the proper place to mention all those establishments which have relation to the public schools.

Firstly, such are those which prepare the pupils for the public schools taking charge of the small children, (*Kleinkinderpflege*.) They have been in existence during the last forty years, and numbered 142, with 8,953 children, in 1866. Their objects are, to keep the children from the temptations and dangers of the street, to occupy them with appropriate exercises and games, and to plant good seeds in the tender heart. The children come to these schools when three or four years old, and remain there until they can be admitted to the public school. The teachers of these establishments are carefully trained in Waiblingen, which training school was founded in 1857, and is supported by the central board of the charitable association.* The schools themselves are supported by voluntary contributions, by tuition-fees of the wealthy, and contributions of the State department, which liberally provided for them when they were first established.

Secondly, there must be mentioned those institutions in which the youth receive additional instruction with a view to practical life, the more so as they are also open to all the former pupils of public schools. They are so well patronized by the latter, that 70 per cent. of the apprentices have received instruction in them. Such are the Industrial Schools of Improvement, which were distributed in 1866 to 1867 as follows:

1. Towns in which, on Sundays and on week-day evenings, instruction is given in industrial and mercantile branches, and in which there is a daily school of design.† There are four of them, viz., Stuttgart, Ulm,

* See "Schools for Small Children, &c., in Wurtemberg," by Lofinger. Stuttgart, 1865.

† The official article on instruction in Drawing in the Industrial Schools of Improvement, in the

Heilbron, and Reutlingen, with 1,894 scholars below and 719 above 17 years of age; in all, 2,118 scholars, of whom 126 are girls.

2. Towns in which the ordinary instruction is given on Sundays and on week-day evenings, with drawing-school; there are eleven of them, with 1,219 scholars below and 295 above 17 years; in all, 1,514 scholars, of whom 96 are girls.

3. Towns in which the ordinary instruction is given on Sundays and on week-day evenings, without drawing-schools; there are eighty-seven of them, with 3,898 scholars below and 722 above 17 years; in all, 4,120 scholars.

4. Towns with ordinary evening-schools and no Sunday-school; there are seven of them, with 137 scholars below and 30 above 17 years; in all, 167 scholars.

5. Places in which instruction in no other branch but drawing is given; there are thirteen of them, with 218 scholars below and 36 above 17 years; in all, 254 scholars.

In these 122 places, additional instruction is therefore given to 6,866 scholars below and 1,802 above 17 years; in all to 8,168 scholars, i. e. about one-fourth of the whole number of inhabitants.

The number of teachers employed at those schools amounted, in the year mentioned above, to 451. There are 27 different subjects of instruction, viz.: Arithmetic, 4,265 scholars; German, 4,041; free-hand drawing, 3,809; geometrical drawing, 2,082; machine, architectural, &c., drawing, 1,894; book-keeping, 1,229; plane geometry, 895; modeling, 517; mensuration and practical mathematics, 500; natural philosophy, 451; French, 340; calligraphy, 351; mercantile arithmetic, 265; descriptive geometry, 239; English, 204; geography, 142; chemistry, 130; mechanics, 96; mercantile correspondence, 81; mercantile laws, 75; German literature, 60; engraving, 39; French correspondence, 18; counting-house business, 15; Italian, 14.

The instruction was given gratis in 42 places; in the other places a tuition-fee was paid amounting to from 24 kreutzers to 1 florin 30 kreutzers per annum. These fees cover the expenses of fuel and light; of the surplus the government pays one-half of the teachers' remuneration, and in smaller schools for the school apparatus. But not all the communities accept government assistance. The whole assistance paid by the government amounted to 26,505 florins 30 kreutzers, in sums of from 20 to 3,742 florins. The amount of State assistance depends on the greater or less number of branches of instruction, the necessity of procuring apparatus, and the need of the community. The industrial schools of improvement sent, in 1867, collectively some drawings and models to the Paris Exhibition, and had a gold and a silver medal awarded to them. They had received before, in 1865, honorable acknowledgment at the

Extra of the "Staatsanzeiger" of May 22d, 1868, contains ample and official communications, caused by many inquiries of foreign governments about instruction in drawing at the public, real, and improvement schools.

World's Exhibition in London, among other industrial schools and establishments of a similar character of other countries.

The pupils learn a good deal in many of these institutions, though they must devote part of their time of recreation to the studies, after having finished their daily labors, often hard enough, and though the demands on the vital power of the instructors, who have already spent the day in teaching school, are rather great. The more the ablest pupils of the schools of improvement shall gain the position of masters in different trades, the greater will be the encouragement for young men to attend these schools, and the more probable it will become, that apprentices and assistants will be excused a short time during the day from their regular labors and be permitted to devote it to their studies.

To encourage pupils, teachers and communities, exhibitions are instituted from time to time, either generally or in some districts, when prizes are distributed. To facilitate the knowledge of apparatus and instruments used in other countries, the department of trades and commerce has established a museum, open to every one, and has caused a methodical series of copies for drawing and of plaster casts to be made, in order to render the instruction in drawing more efficient.*

There have been also established, more recently, Industrial Schools of Improvement for Females. Thus in Stuttgart since 1861; there were in 1867-68, 130 pupils (71 above, 59 below 17 years) who received instruction in book-keeping, laws of exchange, German language, writing of business letters, mercantile arithmetic, calligraphy, drawing, painting, French, geography, hygiene, during the six winter months, paying a fee of 12 florins 80 kreutzers for all branches. Similar institutions exist since 1866 and 1867 in Reutlingen, Biberach, Ravensburg, and Blaubeuren.†

Further are to be mentioned the agricultural schools of improvement. There were in the winter of 1866-67 :

- a, 170 voluntary schools, with 3,266 pupils.
- b, 860 obligatory evening schools, (see above,) in which instruction in agriculture is given, with 7,913 pupils.
- c, the so-called agricultural evening meetings in sixty communities, with 1,461 visitors.
- d, 78 reading circles, with 2,084 members.

It is not unfrequent that men of more advanced age are occasional or regular members, and in some places also scholars of the day-schools and girls. Instruction is given in agriculture proper, mensuration of planes and solids, natural philosophy, and chemistry, to some extent. The instructors are schoolmasters, ministers, and other experts.

Of particular value for the distribution of knowledge in regard to agriculture are the Lectures by experienced men which the department of

* See catalogue of the collections of the Royal Department of Commerce and Trade in Wurtemberg. Stuttgart, Mezler, 1867, II, III, and Appendix of 1868, IV, V.

† Confr. "Staatsanzeiger" of Sept. 20th, 1868.

commerce provides in a number of districts every year. These lectures embrace all branches of agriculture, produce correct views, stimulate exertions, and greatly assist the agricultural associations of the districts in their effective influence. These associations inspect the agricultural schools, though they mostly do so in agreement with the district-school inspector. The department distributes moreover, gratis, agricultural and philosophical publications among agricultural schools, reading-clubs and libraries, in order to assist the more in the distribution of knowledge; 1,900 publications of this character were distributed in 1866-67.*

The government sends thus streams and rivulets of knowledge through the country, nor does it disdain to irrigate the smallest meadow. What other countries and nations, grown up in self-government, effect by associations and single individuals, who devote time and property to the public welfare, viz., initiative and hearty assistance in the solution of questions of national economy;—all that must proceed in our country from the government, at least for the time being. It would be an interesting though perhaps an impossible labor, to collect minute statistical information not only of the amount of money spent by the government, but of the voluntary and official expenditure of time and energy by all the officers of State and Church, in instructing and educating the youth of our country.

There are, further, those institutions to be mentioned, in which instruction and education are extended to those children who have a claim to public charity for one reason or the other. Such are:

Firstly, the Orphan Asylums, two of which are established by the government, viz., in Stuttgart and in Ochsenhausen, (before 1868 in Weingarten;) an asylum for neglected children is connected with the latter. There are at present employed at each: 1 inspector, 1 steward, 1 head-teacher, 8 assistant-teachers, 8 assistant inspectors of boys, 1 of girls. The inspectors are clergymen and at the same time teachers of religion for the children of their denomination. Both asylums were originally established for orphans of all religious denominations; circumstances made it, however, necessary to send all Evangelical orphans to Stuttgart, (except 1 Catholic and 2 Israelite) and all the Catholic orphans to Weingarten, besides those Evangelicals who can not be boarded in, or otherwise provided for by the former. Not all the orphans board in the institutions; about 40 per cent. live with families in the country; thus, all the Evangelical orphans formerly at Ochsenhausen are now provided for in families until a new Evangelical asylum can be built. There were in charge of the asylum in Stuttgart on Jan. 1st, 1867:

Boarders in the asylum,.....	141 boys, 32 girls, in all, 173
“ “ families,.....	83 “ 69 “ “ 152
	<hr/> 224 boys, 101 girls, in all, 325

* “Wochenblatt” for agriculture and the management of forests, published by the Department of Agriculture, 1867, No. 45.

In Weingarten :

						Neglected children.	Aggregate
Boards in the asylum,	108	boys,	31	girls,	in all	139;....	46 boys, 13 girls, in all 59;....198
" " families,	41	"	48	"	"	89;....	5 " " 5;.... 94
							149 boys, 79 girls, in all 228;....51 boys, 13 girls, in all 64;....292

Of these 617 orphans, 457 belong to the Evangelical, 158 to the Catholic, and 2 to the Israelite confession. The asylums have, moreover, charge of 269 apprentices in different trades, for whom they pay the fees, and 24 scholars in teachers' seminaries, of whom 13 reside at the seminaries at the expense of the asylums, and 11 (beside 1 pupil of a real-school) in the asylums. Thus public charity provides for 911 orphans of the country. For the asylums are established for the benefit of the poor children of all classes of society, (those of soldiers having the precedence,) with a view to give them such an education as the pecuniary means of the institution will allow. Not a few men occupy now a distinguished position, both in the public service and in the trades, who received their education at and through the asylums.

The expenses of the two institutions—nearly equally divided among them—amounted in 1865–66 to 92,280 florins 13 kreutzers. These expenses were defrayed partly from interest on endowments, partly from collections in the churches and voluntary contributions*; the remainder by the government.

Secondly, the asylums for neglected children,† which not only take charge of children already depraved, but also of those who are in danger of becoming so. There are 18 Evangelical institutions, with 932 children; 4 Catholic, with 816; and 1 Israelite, with 12.‡ The different asylums had charge of the following number of children until 1867: the Evangelical institutions, (since 1820,) 9,871; Catholic, (since 1831,) 1,250; and Israelite, 178; in all, 10,099 children. All, except the one at Weingarten, (Ochsenhausen,) have been called into existence by associations or individuals, and are supported by them, but receive also assistance from the central board of the charitable associations, a board which is composed of civil officers and private individuals, and which disposes of the pecuniary means obtained from the government or from private contributions or from interest on bequests. This assistance amounted in 1855–66, for all the institutions, to 44,085 fl., or 4,000 fl. per annum; the board further contributed 10,439 fl. for the education

* They amounted in 1865–66 for Stuttgart to 16,237 fl 15 kr.; for Weingarten to 12,056 fl. 39 kr. The original property is moreover constantly increased by bequests. Of the voluntary contributions, a portion is always placed at the disposal of the inspectors or expended for the personal benefit of all or certain children.

† "History and Statistics of Asylums for Neglected Children in Wurtemberg," by L. Völker, 1845.

‡ They are established to accommodate 1,281 Evangelical, 381 Catholic, and 30 Israelite children. The reason why there is not the full complement of children in the asylums, may be found in the more favorable economical condition of the country at present; for in less favorable periods most of the institutions take charge of more than the normal number of children. The condition of the lower classes of the population may, therefore, be estimated by this barometer to some extent.

of poor children and the apprenticeship of poor boys; 19,959 fl. for schools that take charge of small children, and 85,907 fl. for industrial schools.*

Connected with these institutions are schools; the superintendents (*Hausväter*) are also the teachers; the subjects taught are the same as in the public schools, besides practical agriculture (except in Stuttgart) and all those occupations which are in connection with housekeeping. The result of the instruction and education in these institutions must be considered a favorable one; the majority of children become useful members of society, and only a comparatively small number can be pronounced as irretrievably lost. Masters gladly take them as apprentices. The children, however, being accustomed to punctuality, to cleanliness, and to regularity in taking their simple meals, find it often more difficult to get on well in less regulated households than those who have been educated in families; hence the not always well-founded complaint that the children, educated in these and in orphan asylums, are worthless.

It must be remarked, that those institutions which have been modest in their aims have been hitherto successful, even under trying circumstances, whilst the one established on a grander scale by G. Werner, (Reutlingen, with ten smaller ones in other places, established in 1837, and having 438 pupils in 1862,) has greatly suffered from unfavorable influences.

To these institutions must be added one established in 1859, for criminal and greatly degenerated older boys of the Evangelical denomination. It has had 58 boys in charge since its establishment, and gave occupation in 1867 to 20 young men as agriculturists (on 58 acres of land) and as weavers.

Thirdly, institutions for the instruction and education of children suffering from organic deficiencies. There is an institute for the deaf and dumb in Gemünd, with 1 inspector, 1 head-teacher, and 3 to 4 teachers. It accommodated in 1867, 58 pupils of both denominations; the expenses in 1865-66 amounted to 11,681 fr. 57 kr., paid by the government. The mother-house of the Charitable Sisters established in 1868 an institute for the deaf and dumb, in which, at present, 10 Catholic children (most of them girls) are taken care of at the expense of the government. The instruction is given under the superintendence of the mother-house. This institute offers to the pupils of the Catholic teachers' seminary an opportunity to become acquainted with the method of instructing such unfortunates. The pupils of the Evangelical teachers' seminary at Esslingen and Nürtingen have a similar opportunity at the institute for the deaf and dumb there. Esslingen had 19, Nürtingen 22 pupils, at an expense respectively of 3,451 fl. 18 kr. and 3,108 fl. 32 kr.

The pupils of the seminaries are thus expected to learn how to instruct the deaf and dumb, so that they may take charge of them privately in

* Jubilee report of the Central Board of Charitable Associations in the kingdom of Wurtemberg during the fifty years of their existence, from 1817 to 1867.

their own homes. The government pays them for either all or a portion of the expenses for such private instruction. At the seminary in Nürtingen the method of instructing the deaf and dumb is regularly taught to appointed teachers, in order to enable them to teach such children in their own districts. They receive an extra remuneration per day. To these 3 institutes, supported by the government, must be added 3 private institutes for the deaf and dumb, in connection with the asylum for neglected children, with about 40 pupils.

There is a private institute for the blind in Stuttgart, to which is admitted a certain number of pupils, for whom the government pays. It had charge of 34 pupils (6 paid for by the State) in 1867.

There are 2 private establishments for weak-minded children, which receive 1,500 fl. a year from the State. The one is in Marienberg, and was attended July 1st, 1868, by 27 children, able to be benefited by the school, and 42 other pupils. It has been now twenty years in operation and had as pupils 223 children, of whom 126 improved much. The other, established in Winterbach in 1848, is, since 1864, in Stetten, and takes charge of weak-minded and epileptic children; it had, in 1867, 118 pupils, (47 foreigners,) of whom 24 are epileptic.

Many of these institutions, all depending on charity, receive assistance from members of the royal family and bear their names.*

TOTAL EXPENDITURE FOR ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

The total expenditure for public instruction can only be estimated approximately, viz., salaries of teachers, additional pay after long services, &c., nearly 1,600,000 florins; school-houses, houses for teachers, school apparatus, &c., about 600,000 fl.†

Add to it the expenses for the training of teachers, visitations, pensions, &c. Of the total expenditure for these objects, (estimate 1867-70,) the government pays as an annual average as follows:

Salaries of teachers, and damages,	58,600	florins.
Additional pay for long services,	52,950	"
Assistance paid to communities for salaries and building of school-houses,	125,500	"
Expenses for lectures, conferences, visitations, &c.,	16,570	"
Industrial schools,	13,100	"

Total, 226,270 fl. per annum.

This, however, is but the direct contribution of the government to cover the expenses for public instruction, for it charges itself further with the expenses for the training of teachers, viz.:

* All these institutions publish annual reports, in which not only the economical and personal statistics are given in detail, but also many medical and pedagogic experiences, so that valuable materials for education and instruction may be found in them. This refers particularly to the reports of the orphan asylums and the institutes for weak-minded children; the remarks on the influence of certain branches of instruction on the clouded intellects, are of great psychological interest. The most striking effects have been produced by sacred history, object teaching, geometrical and free-hand drawing, and gymnastic exercises.

† In 1857, therefore, before the law of 1858 could have any influence, the total expenditure, minus interest on the value of real estate and apparatus, amounted to 1,200,000 fl.; of which the

For male teachers' seminaries,.....	44,280 fl.
“ female “ “	7,300 “
“ candidates for teaching in private schools,.....	14,000 “

Total,.....65,580 fl.

It further pays annual pensions of public school teachers, 50,000 fl.
Also contribution toward life insurance for widows,.... 3,300 “

Total,.....53,300 fl.

Add to it the expenditure for orphan asylums,..... 50,050 fl.
Deaf and dumb and blind,.....21,700 “

Total,.....71,750 fl.

The total expenditure of the government will, therefore, annually amount to 457,350 fl. on an average.*

RESULTS OF THE SYSTEM.

The safest expedient to ascertain the result of these efforts to promote public education, is furnished by the men who are annually drafted into the army. These men are submitted to an examination in reading and writing, when they have joined their regiments, and the result is communicated to the war department.

During the 21 years from 1844 to 1866, 96,000 recruits have been drafted; only 14 of them were unable to read and write, certainly a very small fraction. On examining the causes of these defects, it has been invariably found that the men were either uncommonly stupid and weak-minded, or lazy, or both at the same time. The local school super-

government paid one-third, and the communities about one-half; the remainder was covered by tuition-fees, foundations, &c. The latest official estimate of 1863-64, before the increase of expenditure authorized by the law of 1865, was as follows:

- A. *Ordinary expenses* :—1. Salaries of teachers,.....1,139,890 florins, 25 kreutzers.
2. Emoluments of teachers,.....217,033 “ 5 “

Which were defrayed from—

- a. Tuition-fees,187,216 fl. 44 kr.
b. Local foundations,.....191,362 fl. 58 kr.
c. Communities,821,320 fl. 1 kr.
d. Government,..... 88,494 fl. 45 kr.
e. Other sources,..... 68,529 fl. 2 kr.

1,356,923 fl. 30 kr.

- B. *Extraordinary expenses* :—1. For school-houses:

- a. By local contributions,.. .280,322 florins, 52 kreutzers.
b. “ government “ 14,024 “ 41 “

2. For other objects of tuition:

- a. By local contributions,..... 38,165 “ 14 “
b. “ government “ 4,120 “ 44 “

Total A and B.....1,093,557 florins, 1 kreutzer.

Of which were contributed by government,.... 106,640 “ 10 “

* The estimate of expenses for church and school of every description amounts, in that period, to 2,757,246 fl. per annum; war department, 4,815,765 fl.; total expenditure, 21,230,000 fl. This expenditure would reach a much higher figure, if the interest on the principals paid to the pension funds of the different funds of the different departments, the interest on the building-funds, &c., be taken into account. This would increase the expenditure for public instruction by 100,000 fl. Taking, then, the total expenditure to be 550,000 fl., it requires a tax of 18 kr. per capita and on each scholar, including the schools of improvement, 1 fl. 30 kr.

intendents, who are responsible for the discharge of pupils from the public schools, are obliged to preserve copies of the writing of each discharged pupil until the latter has attained his 21st year; the tabular reports on school visitations must also give information about his faculties, morals, and knowledge acquired, so that the school which a recruit has formerly attended, furnishes all information required. Another expedient to ascertain the results of public education is furnished by the prisons. For each prisoner is examined in reading and writing as soon as his sentence has taken effect. In 1866-67, 2,091 persons were sentenced to punishment in prisons; 19 of them could read but not write; 20 could neither read nor write, whilst 98 per cent. could both read and write, a percentage which has varied little for several years, whilst before 1840 there were but 70 to 80 per cent. The same result appeared in the army, because it was the law of 1836 which brought the opportunity of obtaining instruction in harmony with the obligation to attend school. It is remarkable that the greater criminals are mostly not deficient in reading and writing; it is those who are punished for minor offenses, as vagrants, beggars, &c., who show the deficiency, i. e. persons who had been unsteady in their habits during their school years.

The statistics of the number of persons who sign documents by a cross instead of the signature of their names, does not exist; there are still isolated cases of this kind, and it is natural that hard-working and unambitious persons should unlearn much of what they had acquired in school. But it may be safely stated, that by far the greater number of the pupils of the public schools enter life with that amount of knowledge and accomplishments which is sufficient for all practical purposes, and which enables them to develop their powers when opportunity offers itself, provided they are animated by proper zeal. There are, even in small villages, not unfrequently men of the people who not only read the local and greater newspapers, but who are in the habit of reading books of real value; nor is the number of libraries small which are diligently used by the old and the young. In nearly every house religious books will be found, even here and there those of a theosophical character. The Evangelical population takes great interest in the mission news; this and the correspondence with their emigrated friends enlarge their views and keep their intellects active. Country clergymen maintain that the letters of women who have emigrated to America, are much clearer in their expressions than those written by men, who indulge in a strange intermixture of English with their mother tongue, and show contempt for their native land. It is but natural that writings of a lighter, even destructive character should circulate in Wurtemberg, where every one can read, even in the more secluded places; and that the reading of the daily press should produce fermentation in different classes of the population. But it would be wrong to charge the public schools alone with the light and dark sides of the civilization of our times. The natural characteristics of our people should be taken into account, and

other essential factors of the development of the life of a people should not be overlooked. Original rudeness and modern frivolity, the many-shaped superstitions of ancient and recent origin, are nourished by other sources than by deficiencies of the public and high-schools.

The different parts of the country show no great difference in the results of public education; but the portions where the people live on isolated small farms, and where the children, in spite of the laws, are employed to tend the herds during the summer, making it very difficult to establish schools and enforce a regular attendance, show a much greater ignorance and want of mental activity than elsewhere, and teachers complain bitterly of their hard labor and little success in such sections.

IV. INNER ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL.

Principles on which the division into classes rests.

The order for "Organization of the Church" of 1559 laid down the following rules: "Let the schoolmaster divide the children into three classes; in the first class, those beginning to learn the letters; in the second, those beginning to spell syllables, and in the third, those beginning to read and write. Let him divide each class into groups, composed of those most nearly alike, as this will stimulate the children's diligence and diminish the schoolmaster's labor." This is the beginning of our present classification of the school-children, who, however great their number, are all gathered around the teacher at the same time. The work required of children three hundred years ago extends through the first two school years of our time.

A general rule for the division into classes has not hitherto been laid down, and it must vary according to local conditions and the number of lessons required. In schools of one class, with not more than sixty scholars and having a room sufficiently large, all the pupils may be taught at the same time; in winter every forenoon three hours, and on four days every afternoon two hours; but during the summer it is a rule in country schools to teach four hours only, and those hours in the forenoon, the first two being set aside for the older pupils, that they may devote the remaining part of the day to field labor. Yet there are many schools at which, even in winter, the children are not all taught at the same time, but in divisions, formed according to age. The whole class assembles in such schools only when instruction in singing, Bible history, &c., is given. A school of one class, containing more than sixty scholars, must be divided, at least during the winter, into sections, either in all branches of instruction or at least in some; but, whenever the number of scholars is greater than ninety and only one teacher is employed, the school *must* be taught in sections during the whole year. The number of hours employed in teaching is thirty-two per week. Schools of more than one class, in villages or towns, whose inhabitants mostly depend on agricultural pursuits, may also, during summer, reduce the number of lessons and teach only in the forenoon.

When two teachers are employed, one has charge of the children from six or seven to ten or eleven years, the other of those who are older; when three teachers are employed, one of them has charge of the children during the first two years; the two others divide the older children among them. The sexes are taught separately when four or more teachers are employed.

The following wise arrangement exists in the public schools in Stuttgart, where the number of scholars in each class can be kept pretty low; viz., two teachers have charge of three classes, so that one teaches the first class alone, the other the third, and both together teach the intermediate class; one, therefore, continues to teach the children who have left his class, and the other becomes well acquainted with them before they are promoted to his class. The arrangement of the large girls' school in Tübingen is both ingenious and economical. The school is divided into two parallel classes, called A and B; the former is intended for the more extended instruction required of the educated classes of society, wherefore a higher tuition-fee is required; both classes are subdivided into sections, taught by the same teachers, who receive an extra remuneration, without compelling the community to contribute to it; the number of daily lessons is, of course, increased. The necessity of establishing a higher class of schools for girls below fourteen years of age in that university town, has by this arrangement been obviated. The girls' schools in several other towns have also established A classes, but on different principles.

The division into classes depends on the arrangement of the school-houses in the different towns. There must be more classes, when all the scholars meet in the same school-room, than when there are several school-houses in different parts of the town. In schools of many classes it has been found more advantageous for a teacher to instruct during two or more years the same children in different classes, than to place the pupils every year in a higher class under a new teacher.

The number of lessons during a week given by a teacher must be considered separately from the number given to a pupil. Every teacher is obliged to devote to the public school and Sunday-school thirty, and if the former is divided into sections, thirty-two hours a week, but he can claim an extra remuneration for every hour above thirty, and for the winter evening-school, even if it be held instead of a Sunday-school. A large number of schools, however, are only open for twenty-six and in summer for twenty-four hours, of which two are set apart to the minister for instruction in religion, which number is frequently still more diminished by church-service on week-days (prayer-meetings, catechising, &c.) There is no general rule which distinctly prescribes the number of hours a scholar is bound to spend at school. The children have to obey the regulations of the local authorities, and these regulations depend again on the organization and plan of the school and on the limits which labor in the field and house naturally put to the time devoted to instruction.

For though public education is in itself a benefit to the people, it is also a public duty which is to a certain degree a sacrifice, which the poor, and even the well-to-do-families, during urgent demands of business and scarcity of servants, make to the community, which is interested in the education of all citizens. Unreasonable demands in regard to attendance at school will therefore be mostly followed by frequent absences from school, which produce disturbance of the regular progress of instruction. The standard of a school is not always determined by the number of daily lessons. It is, therefore, usual to enforce the obligation of a teacher to give thirty lessons a week, in this manner, that he has to devote some extra time to the instruction of those pupils who have been absent more than the average, either in bringing them up to the standard of the class, or in taking them beyond the regular course. Pupils of public schools are very differently influenced by absences; for the average number of hours spent at school by one pupil may be double that of another during the seven years of obligation, and yet he may not have acquired knowledge in the same ratio. The time spent on the school benches is certainly an important factor in education, but not the most important.

The law mentions as essential subjects of education: Religion and morals, reading, writing, German language, arithmetic, and singing.

The religious instruction is given by the local minister, assisted by the schoolmaster, who, when of the Evangelical denomination, has a greater share in it according to the principles of the Church. The former is expected principally to teach the systematic part, whilst the latter attends to Bible history, the committing to memory and explanation of the catechism, and the preparation for the sermon. Text-books for Bible history in Catholic schools are Schmidt and Schuster; in Evangelical schools, in the youngest classes, "two times fifty-two Bible narratives of the Calver publishing house;" in the middle classes, "Freihofser's Bible History;" in the senior classes, the sacred Scriptures themselves. For the committing to memory a selection has been made of three hundred and ninety-seven proverbs and forty-five hymns, which the local school-board may reduce to three hundred and fifty proverbs and thirty-five hymns; further the Lutheran catechism, edited by Brenz, and the "Confirmation book," (seventy-three questions and answers,) to be recited as a confession of the faith on confirmation. The scholars of the Latin and Real schools having to commit to memory the same matter, all the people of the Evangelical denomination have stored up in memory the same religious treasures, and the children are protected against any arbitrary too much or too little, though local considerations are not deprived of their influence. Of the twenty-six weekly lessons, two are devoted to religious instruction by the minister, two to committing to memory, five to six to the reading of the Bible and to Bible history. This is the rule in the upper classes of schools of several classes. In those of one class or of several sections, three to four lessons for the older children are devoted to religious exercises, particularly in summer.

The Evangelical ministers give instruction mostly in the upper classes ; in Catholic schools, two hours a week in each class or section are devoted to these exercises.

The lessons always begin and close with prayer ; in some places with the singing of a hymn ; in a few with a liturgical service. It is a consequence of the intimate connection of church and school, that the school-children, as such, have their separate exercises at church, (catechising, school-mas,) attend the church services of the whole community, assist in singing, are present at every sermon, prayer-meeting, and Sunday instruction, and sing the chorus at burials and marriage festivities. Attempts have been made to repeal the latter duties and the attendance at church service during school hours, but with little success.

For the instruction in reading, a spelling-book in two parts is used. The first part consists of the usual spelling lessons and of some compositions, which serve to begin at once with object teaching, to assist in the development of thought and speech, and to give the first ideas of the construction of sentences. It is used during the first two years ; some schools hasten through it in one year. The second part is only used in Evangelical schools, (the Catholic schools use the Bible history by Schmid and Schuster and Bumüller's Reader instead.) It contains exercises in the art of reading, which prepare for the use of the "Reader ;" the latter is mostly used by the children above ten years in public and Sunday-schools. The "Reader"—used also in many other countries—contains, in different types, pieces in prose and poetry, compositions on subjects of the natural sciences, geography, history, and the life of men, not arranged in any systematic order, but so that the teacher can easily arrange them for his special purposes. For the object to be attained by this book (accepted in 1854) is, first, to offer reading lessons of greater variety in material and form than the religious books, formerly used, allow ; secondly, to direct the student's attention to the objects in the visible world, to enlarge their horizon, and to produce a correct understanding of nature and history. The communities were opposed to the use of this book, partly from prejudice, partly because they thought it would supplant the Bible ; but after a careful management of these scruples, it has been accepted not only by all Evangelical schools, but may be found in the sitting-rooms of many families. A similar "Reader" was accepted by the Catholic schools in 1862—for the instruction in natural sciences much superior to that formerly used—and also one for the Jewish schools in 1867.

For the use of this "Reader," both in regard to study of the language as well as of the subjects treated on, as many hours are devoted as for religious instruction. It must not, however, interfere with the time prescribed for the other branches, viz., arithmetic four, calligraphy and singing, two hours a week. There is no generally accepted order of recitations ; the schools in one district, however, concert a plan, and it is the inspector's duty to convince himself during his visitation, that no undue

favor be shown to one branch at the expense of the others, particularly that in the Evangelical schools the proper time be allowed to each, Bible and Reader. Though the school-law of 1836 does not mention the other branches of instruction, they have grown so much in favor, that the regulation of 1864 prescribes that every public school shall devote two hours (in summer, one and a half hours) a week to the instruction in history, geography, natural philosophy and natural history; that the necessary apparatus, &c., shall be paid for from the school funds, and books of a popular scientific character shall be bought and placed in the local libraries at the disposal of the young. The time necessary for instruction in these branches shall be gained by an increased number of school hours, or, if possible, by the establishment of intermediate schools, for which purpose the government has promised pecuniary assistance. A very compendious physical apparatus has been recommended, by which the phenomena of electricity, electro-magnetism, hydrostatics and light can be shown, (price nine florins,) and an instruction for the use of that apparatus has been published; a series of plates, illustrating the most important applications of forces has also been recommended. The more active teachers and inspectors devote much attention to these branches, and not without success, particularly in boys' schools. But it has been found that the slow boys, who can not keep up with the more intelligent, are not easily kept under discipline, and that it requires very prudent management to prevent a general decrease of knowledge and abilities. Among the apparatus recommended, the one deserves special mention which illustrates the laws of the lever. It may be said that the realistic direction public instruction has recently taken, is a return to the principles of Rochow, Felbiger, &c., to the investigation of matter, which for some time had been superseded by the one-sided exercises in numbers, forms and abstract reasonings of the Pestalozzians. It may be true that less time will be allowed to the reading of the Bible, yet the injurious method of following the beaten track in teaching will be discredited, and a more comprehensive treatment of the religious studies will be substituted.

The instruction in the German language (grammar) runs mostly parallel with that in reading, writing from dictation, composition and object teaching; but when the children have comprehended the simplest rules of formation, composition and flexion of words, exercises in forming sentences are introduced—a method which is now generally accepted after many and laborious trials of others. No general system of grammar and grammatical terminology having been prescribed, the schools of a district concert one among themselves. The scholars of the upper classes are required to write from dictation without serious blunders, and the most advanced of them to write a composition on a subject explained to them. There are pupils, even in common village-schools, who are not wanting in original ideas, but the Swabian tribe is clumsy in expression, though earnest in thought, and its vernacular renders it more

difficult to express their thoughts well in writing. Rules for orthography were officially prescribed some years ago; yet they will not be generally recognized nor have a long existence, because they are a compromise between the old and the new, and because those who prepared them were too timid in drawing consequences or in discarding what is useless.

In arithmetic, the elements, as far as vulgar fractions and simple proportions included, are taught; the latter as a necessity in practical life. The pupils of many boys' schools, even in villages, do sums in decimal fractions, square and cube roots, and compute planes and volumes either by formula or after having learned the geometrical propositions on triangles and parallelograms. This forms an easy connection with geometrical drawing.

Drawing is not obligatory, but urgently recommended for boys of the upper classes; it is taught even in some village-schools, whilst in towns both boys and girls often receive instruction from regular artists. This branch of education is so much liked, that the eagerness to join the class had to be checked by prescribing that nobody would be allowed to join a drawing-class who had not reached his eleventh year. The Commission for Industrial Schools of Improvement encourages this branch of education, by extending the regular visitations to teachers and pupils of common schools, when the former receives an extra remuneration from the community. The government has made liberal provisions for the training of teachers. Drawing was taught in 1866 at 184 Evangelical schools to 5,767 scholars, mostly boys; in 1868 it was taught also in 184 Catholic schools, of which 91 were in villages.*

Certain regulations are given for the instruction in calligraphy. Singing is taught in all classes. Simple exercises in keeping time, as well as songs for children, patriotic songs and hymns are practiced. They sing in two and three parts, and in church in four parts. The great exertions made in favor of the methodical instruction in singing, (Nägeli's method,) and the hope that it would succeed, have been greatly diminished by experience. Yet singing associations of young men are not rare, even in villages; but the really perfect four-part chorus is rare, because it is too difficult without a well-trained master.

Gymnastics are obligatory in higher educational establishments, and are recommended in public schools. The pupils of the latter, in some towns, join those of the former; there are also a few gymnastic institutes for girls.

The usual tasks to be performed at home are: Committing to memory, making fair copies of corrected compositions, preparation and review of lessons, more rarely sums and compositions. The public schools can not expect that much should be done at home, because the children are there occupied with other labors. Some schools require the pupils to write the sermons from memory, which was formerly the only exercise in composition, and very highly thought of; the copy-books in which

* See Extra of "Staatsanzeiger in Württemberg," May 22d, 1868.

they were written and corrected on Mondays at school, are kept as a treasure by many successful pupils.

A diary is kept in every school, so that teacher and inspector can find, whenever it may be required, what has occurred during any lesson and in any branch of instruction. A column, headed "remarks," contains observations of the teacher, absences of pupils, &c. ; the clergyman must enter his remarks after every lesson and visitation. The diaries being public documents, incorrect entries are punished by the criminal law. The absences are recorded in tables, with the remarks: excused, sick, bad weather, or not satisfactorily explained, from which abstracts are made for the visitations.

The local school-boards institute examinations twice a year, at the end of the winter and summer terms, which are public, but the parents are very rarely present. The local school inspector presides, in large schools assisted by the head teacher or the visiting teacher, and both determine the result of the examination. This result is communicated to the teachers concerned and reported to the local school-board; the latter enter their opinion about the teachers in the minutes and annex them to the report.

The district-inspector visits the schools (the Catholic once a year, the Evangelical once in two years;) that is, not only the common schools, but the Sunday, industrial, winter evening, private, and infant schools. He is expected to obtain a perfect knowledge of their condition. The General Superintendent visits the schools in that place where the district superintendent is at the same time local superintendent, once in three years during his school-visitation at the deanery, and particularly in regard to religious instruction, when deanery and district inspection are separate, during his visitation of the churches. The visitors are instructed to engage the assistance of experienced teachers of other schools, if they deem it necessary; teachers of the neighborhood may also attend such examination for their own instruction. Local school-boards and foundation-boards are invited to assist; they are made acquainted with all the detail and with the result of the examination, and are requested to give their opinion of the condition of the schools and of the administration of the local inspectors and teachers. The visitor adds these communications to the school report of the local minister, and sends them, with his certificate of the school-inspection of the latter, to the department.

The scholastic year begins in nearly all schools at the end of April; in a few towns in October.

Six weeks are allowed for vacations, in such seasons during the year as local considerations demand. The local inspector determines when vacation shall be allowed and how long, after consultation with the teachers; in case of disagreement, the local school-board will decide. Not all schools allow the whole of six weeks, whilst there are others which will give longer vacations when agricultural necessities and an

exceptional year render it necessary: this must, however, be justified in the school report.

The discipline of the school is administered by the teachers, each in his class, with the concurrence of the inspecting teacher. The usual punishments are: reprimand, which must, however, not degenerate into abuse; putting back to a lower place in the school, and keeping in after school. Corporal punishment too (but never by a minister) may be dictated, but only exceptionally and with due regard to health and decency. Abuse of the right to administer corporal punishment, or when the health of a child has been injured by it, is followed by criminal prosecution, and when repeated or when the injury inflicted should be serious, it is punished by dismissal besides. It was not for the want of humane laws that formerly corporal punishment was administered to excess. The church organization of 1559 prescribes that the schoolmaster should be sparing in the use of the rod, should not bully the children, pull them by the hair, beat them about the head, &c.; the school organization of 1729-32 demands of the teacher to convince the child that the rod is deserved before inflicting the punishment, to show no passion, but rather to accompany such discipline with prayer to God and "to wrap the rod into a devout Lord's prayer." A charming picture, and good advice, which it would be well to remember even in our time, when the disinclination to administer a flogging has become a principle.

Absences from school, which are not altogether the fault of the child, are punished by the local board by fines, and, if necessary, by imprisonment of the parents or guardians; in case of obstinate disobedience the police steps in and enforces attendance at school. The ordinary fine for one absence is three kreutzers, which, compared with the wages saved by such absence, is so out of proportion, that the summons alone makes the parents feel that they have violated the law. The trifling fine is, therefore, an object of ridicule, and has no effect whatever when neglectful or timid authorities levy the fine by the clerk without serving a summons, as is sometimes done, though it is against the law. The district visitor and the bailiff (*Oberamtmann*) are the guardians of this law, and the district court takes the matter in hand, when the authority of the school-board proves ineffective. The department itself must sometimes even interfere, to put down an evil which may have taken strong root during a period of unvigilant authorities. There are, however, many schools where unexcused absences are rare, and where even those cases which are excusable from unavoidable domestic labors, remain in a modest proportion.

The school-laws are fastened to the walls of the school-room; they are not a penal code, but a representation of the Christian duties of a school-child and of the requirements of good order. The duty of informing, enjoined by the old laws, was founded on good intentions and the result of zeal for moral order and of the Christian duty to be a brother's guardian. The present law has, very properly, canceled it, because the

informers are influenced less by noble motives than by malice and selfishness.

The question whether the school should take cognizance of misdemeanor outside the school-room was readily answered in the affirmative in former times. It is, however, in accordance with the modern division of power, and with the better discrimination between the moral and civil laws, that the province of the schools, and of the courts and magistrates are more clearly defined. The schoolmaster can not be quite indifferent to the conduct of the children outside the school-room; he is, therefore, authorized to interfere in cases of cruelty to animals, bird-nesting, &c., but his arm and rod can not be put into operation by the dictates of the civil authorities. It is the duty of the latter to pass sentence and then to execute it, which may be done by the policeman in the school-room, when the offender is of non-age; they are, however, also permitted to pass the case over to the local school-board, (*e. g.* offenses against the forest laws,) which has then to judge the culpability of the child and the kind and measure of punishment; report is then made to the state authorities. The punishment of minors who have been convicted of offense against the forest laws, is executed by the teacher in the school-room or by the policeman in the town-hall, according to the finding of the school-board. The latter also passes sentence on more serious offenses of pupils, which do not require the interference of magistrate or court, and orders the punishment to be executed by the teacher, who, being a member of the board, simply carries out what has been ordered with his coöperation. If the school-inspector considers himself authorized to dictate a punishment, which he wishes the teacher to execute, he must confer with him about the kind and measure, and appeal to the board, in case of a conflict of opinion. The corporal punishment does not always require the presence of all the scholars; it is sufficient to inform the latter of it, and to caution them. Offenses of children below ten years are always punished by the parents or the teacher.

The law neither prescribes nor forbids the award of prizes. They must be awarded when there are local foundations for that purpose; they may be paid by the community or out of the school-fund, if there be sufficient means. They consist either in money, or in books and other educational apparatus. The school-board used to award prizes to teachers and diligent and poor scholars from the funds of the church, for a short period after 1793; that sum (500 florins) is, however, since 1822 wholly devoted to teachers' rewards. The distribution of cakes among the children on visitation days is generally observed as an old custom or because a foundation provides for it.

V. TEACHERS.

The teachers may be divided into two classes, viz., into those who are permanently and those who are revocably engaged, (*i. e.* who are employed at the pleasure of the department of education.)

The former, principal teachers or schoolmasters, are classified either according to their salary, or to the duties which they perform in addition to teaching. For in schools of at least five classes, one of them is appointed head-master, and in those of less than five classes, employing at least two schoolmasters, one of them is appointed inspecting teacher. The appointment is made by the department, based on the recommendation of the local school-board, and is revocable.

The task of the head-master is to preserve the inner and outer organization of the school. He must, therefore, be present from time to time, during the instruction given by the revocable teachers, take notice of the absences and the punctuality, superintend the good order in school, the cleanliness of the school-house, heating and ventilation of the school-room, and take charge of the inventory and library. He prepares the order of recitations and submits it to the teachers' convention, is present at the periodical examinations, and issues the certificates of the teachers. He is thus in many respects coördinate to the local school-inspector, to whom he is otherwise subordinate, and shares his responsibility for the regularity of the instruction and good order in school. The remuneration as head-master is thirty florins, paid by government.

The inspecting teachers have charge principally of the inner order of the school, and must be present at the examinations. Subject to their inspection are, however, only the revocably engaged teachers; superintending their activity as teachers, assisting them in their professional improvement, watching, in particular, the moral conduct of the assistants whose certificates they sign and to whom they give advice in the practice of teaching.

The revocably appointed teachers are either at the head of a section with full responsibilities, (ushers,) or they perform the duties of a schoolmaster under the superintendence and responsibility of the latter, (assistants.) From among them those are selected who shall assist a weak or sick schoolmaster, or who fill the places of incapable or suspended teachers, or who are the administrators of a vacant place.

The employment of permanently and revocably engaged teachers is regulated by the following law: When but one teacher is required at a public school, a schoolmaster is appointed; when two or more are required, the first, and if there be more than 180 scholars, also the second teacher, must be a schoolmaster; this arrangement is, however, mostly made when the school is attended by 150 scholars. At schools with three to five teachers there must be one, and at schools with more teachers, for every five, one must be a revocable teacher; all the others are schoolmasters. This is a recent amendment of the law of 1836, which allowed for each schoolmaster one assistant and two ushers; a proportion which was very unfavorable to the revocable teachers. For it was in consequence of this law that the ratio between permanent and revocable teachers was, in May, 1855, as 100 : 79, (Evangelical schools 100 : 89, Catholic schools 100 : 61,) instead of 100 : 25, as it should be. This

abnormal condition was reduced to 100:50 by the law of 1858, and to 100:42 by that of Jan. 1st, 1867, and it is improving steadily every year, though retarded by the want of official dwellings in villages. The number of permanent teachers, in 1868, had increased by 163 since 1865, and the number of revocable teachers decreased by 144 during the same period. The ratio of permanent and revocable teachers does not, however, solely depend on the number of places to be filled, but also on the employment of the latter as assistants and administrators, and on the duration of such vacancies, whence the actual ratio shows a much better result in favor of the permanent teachers. There were, Jan. 1st, 1868, 2,721 permanent and 924 revocable teachers, therefore in the ratio of 100:34. So much has been gained already by the new law, that the age at which a teacher attained a permanent appointment has been reduced from 38 and even 40, to 32 and 33, and will in a short time be 30; this is the more to be expected, as the number of female teachers is increasing; they are employed as revocable teachers only and do not enter into competition for the permanent places. In regard to the age at which a permanent appointment is attained, it must be remarked that the patrons are not bound by the regulations for appointment and promotion given by the department; the younger, therefore, the favorites of the patrons are, the older must the other candidates grow until they can gain the appointment. The places in the gift of patrons amount in the Evangelical denomination to 8.6 per ct.; in the Catholic to 30 per ct.

Professional training of teachers.—The number of candidates for employment as teachers is quite fluctuating. After the first regulation of public education, there was a great demand; but later, when all the consequences of the disproportion of the two classes was fully understood, and the growing activity in industrial pursuits in the country offered more tempting occupation, a sensible diminution, both in number and qualification, took place, so much so, that the State Normal Schools (teachers' seminaries) could not keep up their full complement of eighty each. The young men have recently again turned to the educational career, but there is still so great a want of examined and employable candidates, particularly of the Evangelical denomination, that many schools are compelled to resort to division in sections, and even the length of the term at the normal schools has been shortened. The 1,051 male and 95 female candidates (Jan. 1st, 1868) would be more than sufficient to fill the 924 revocable places, were it not for the circumstance that a number, by no means small, of examined but not yet permanently employed candidates are on leave of absence in consequence of sickness, or of preparation for employment at a higher class of schools, or of employment in other public or private institutions or families; lastly, many of the revocably employed teachers are employed as substitutes or administrators.

This deficiency will have changed for the better in a few years, for whilst there were, in 1865, 883 persons who applied for admission to the

Normal schools, there were, in 1868, 512, including 25 Evangelical and 39 Catholic female candidates. There were, in April, 1868, 113 Evangelical applications for the preparatory course, 50 young men were transferred from the latter to the State Normal schools as "incipients," and 20 were allowed to continue their education as teachers in private seminaries; of the Catholic denomination, 30 were admitted to the Normal school and 38 as candidates.

In regard to the classes of the population which furnish the candidates, it should first be stated that a large number, as sons of teachers, follow their fathers' vocation; the greatest number, however, are sons of peasants and small tradesmen, also pupils of the orphan asylums. The higher classes of society furnish but few candidates, viz., sons of clergymen and civil officers, who devote themselves to that modest vocation either from real predilection or from the impossibility of continuing their studies at the universities. There are none among the teachers of public schools who have enjoyed university education, but there are many private teachers who have studied theology and have passed their examinations. The vicars in many small Evangelical communities, who have gradually settled among a Catholic population, are obliged to teach school either alone and then attend the children of the Catholic school up to their tenth year; or together with an assistant, when also the children below ten years attend that school.

The usual course of training of teachers is this: The candidates are subjected to a preliminary examination before a special commission; having passed it creditably they receive permission to begin the preparatory course, either with the promise of receiving pecuniary assistance from government on the condition of continued good conduct and progress, or without such an advantage. This preparatory course lasts two years, the first of which is the year of probation. They are then subjected to another examination, and when they have passed, receive further instruction either in a State Normal school, or a private Normal school, or by authorized teachers. This period lasts now three years or terms, (formerly but two.) The relative number of pupils in State and private Normal schools is not constant, the pupils being guided partly by their pecuniary means, partly by the confidence they put in one or the other of the institutions.

At the two Evangelical State Normal schools in Esslingen and Nürtingen were employed, Jan. 1st, 1868: 2 rectors, (principals,) 2 scientific principal teachers, (candidates for orders,) 5 head-masters, 4 ushers, 2 assistants; further, at the two schools and at the two institutes for the deaf and dumb connected with the Normal school: 4 head-masters, 2 ushers, 3 assistants; total, 18 permanent, and 11 revocable teachers. The two Evangelical private Normal schools employed 14 teachers, of whom 4 were assistants.

The Catholic Normal school at Gemünd employed 1 rector, 1 scientific principal teacher, 2 head-masters, 2 ushers, 1 assistant, i. e. 4 permanent and 3 revocable teachers; total 7.

At the private seminary for female teachers at Ludwigsburg, were employed 4 male and 4 female teachers; at that in Gemünd, 5 teachers.

The schools connected with the Normal schools—of somewhat higher pretensions than the common public schools—existed hitherto more for the purpose of allowing pupils of the Normal school to see and hear, than to practice how to teach; but at present, practice-schools of one class are connected with each Normal school, to which the children of the neighborhood are admitted, and which the candidates, during their last year at the Normal school, independently teach, and thus obtain knowledge of the administration of a common school.

The candidates receive from the State, even during the preparatory course, pecuniary assistance to defray expenses; at the Normal schools, they have room, fuel, light and instruction gratis, and receive 60 to 90 fl. as a help to pay for the board which they take at the seminary. Those studying in private seminaries receive to 80 to 50 fl. and more, according to their necessities. The candidate who accepts such assistance is obliged to enter into the service of the State, unless he refunds the sums thus expended.

Schools are attached to the two institutes for neglected children in Lichtenstern and Tempelhof, which receive from the State pecuniary assistance according to the number of teachers which they furnish for the public service.

The teachers must pass the following examinations: 1, Preliminary examination for admission to the preparatory course; 2, for admission into the Normal school; 3, first examination for office to obtain appointment as assistant; 4, second examination for office to obtain permanent appointment. The examination for promotion into a better place was repealed in 1848.

To the first examination those candidates are admitted who are at least fifteen years old, of good health and in possession of good certificates concerning their Christian life. To pass this examination, the candidate must have the accomplishments of a good pupil of a public school,* and it is to his advantage when he can play a little on the piano

* This examination was formerly held in the districts. The first examination for all candidates took place in 1866; the Evangelical commissioner of education has published its results (*Amtsblatt*, No. 130,) in which he states that the candidates from public schools were, in *Bible history*, superior to those from Latin and Real-schools, whilst both were equally deficient in the understanding of that which they had committed to memory; that in *reading*, the pronunciation was in general less correct than the expression; that their *calligraphy* was pleasant to the eye, but not regular; that the *orthography* in writing from dictation was without serious errors, but not so in composition; that the *compositions*, with few exceptions, exhibited want of ideas and of ease of expression; that in *grammar* those candidates showed sufficient knowledge who had studied a foreign language, and that those from the public schools were very deficient; that in mental and written arithmetic but five out of ninety obtained the result "good." This report is not very flattering; yet it should be remembered that it is very difficult in Wurtemberg to obtain the predicate "good." The different marks are: I a, distinguished, I b, very good; II a, good, II b, pretty good; III a, sufficient, III b, scarcely sufficient, and shades between them, expressed for instance thus, II a to I b. The certificate I a is of rare occurrence; even I b requires good knowledge in all branches. It frequently happens that certificates II a are the best given, and a candidate is

and has some skill in drawing. (Minist. circular, Aug. 13, 1866. "Amtsblatt," No. 137.)

The conditions for admission to the Normal schools are: Age sixteen years, good certificate of the preparatory course, and physical ability. The examination embraces: Religion, German language, arithmetic, natural sciences, music, calligraphy, geometry, and drawing. It is intended to test the thoroughness and the extent of the instruction the candidate has received. (Minist. circular, June 16, 1866; Amtsblatt, No. 137; instruction of the consistory, Amtsblatt, No. 143.)

The first examination for office takes place at the end of the course in the Normal school. Both it and the second examination are regulated, for Evangelical candidates, by the circular of June 26, 1855, which should, however, be somewhat modified, as since that time a third year has been added to the course at the Normal school. That circular, undoubtedly influenced by the well known Prussian school regulations, distinctly states what is required of the teacher, reduces the too extensive mass of knowledge to what is necessary, but requires a thorough and clear understanding of the subject. It also fixes the difference between the first and second examination.

It requires in the first examination: 1, in religion—*a*, knowledge of the Bible; *b*, acquaintance with the historical books of the Old Testament, a number of Psalms and chapters of the Prophets, intimate knowledge of the Gospels, Acts of Apostles, Epistles to the Romans, 1st to the Corinthians, and the pastoral letters; *c*, thorough knowledge of all that has to be committed to memory by the children of the public schools; *d*, justification by faith and by works as expounded in the catechism, and the proverb-book; *e*, acquaintance with the chapters of the "Reader," treating of the history of the Church. 2, in German—*a*, knowledge of the parts of speech, etymology, elements of sentences, different classes of sentences, writing from dictation without errors; *b*, calligraphy and method of instruction in writing; *c*, composition on any subject with which the candidate is well acquainted; *d*, method and practice of teaching a language. 3, arithmetic and geometry—*a*, elements of arithmetic, including decimal fractions and proportion, elements of powers and radicals; exercises in practical and mental arithmetic; *b*, method and practice of teaching arithmetic; *c*, most important coins, weights and measures; *d*, principal propositions of plane geometry, (rectilineal figures and circle;) *e*, elementary computations of surfaces and volumes. 4, in natural sciences, geography and history, as far

considered to possess very respectable knowledge when he carries off certificate II *b*; the greater number of successful candidates obtain III *a*, and among those who passed with III *b* are many who turned out to be good teachers. Most candidates show great nervousness during examination, even those who usually do not show such weakness; many candidates are tormented during examination by the idea that the degree taken in examination sticks to them through life, and are therefore not quite masters of their faculties. There are always some schoolmasters members of the board of examiners, and there can, therefore, be no doubt of the fair treatment of the candidates.

as treated in the "Reader;" the subjects must be perfectly understood, particularly natural history and natural philosophy. 5, in music—*a*, skill to put a given part into two, three, and four parts; *b*, singing hymns, except the more difficult ones; *c*, organ, hymns and other pieces they may have practiced; *d*, violin to accompany a hymn at sight. 6, practical teaching—a certain subject being given, the candidate must teach some pupils during one-fourth of an hour. 7, drawing is optional, but increases the value of a good examination.

In the second examination for office, to which no one is admitted before he has passed his twenty-second year, and before he has served at least two years as revocable teacher, the candidate must show more mature judgment and more thorough mastery of the subjects. 1, In religion—theocratic position and influence of the prophets, Job, Proverbs, and all Epistles of the New Testament. 2, History—knowledge of such events in the chronological tables as are not mentioned in the text of the "Reader." 3, Science of teaching—method of teaching; answers to questions on education, discipline, and arrangement of a school. 4, In music—singing and playing of all the hymns in the hymn-book, extemporaneous prelude on the organ or playing a piece from memory; knowledge of the construction of an organ. 5, Teachers who have acquired a particular knowledge of agriculture, or have experience in superintending an industrial school, are permitted to prove their knowledge or experience by an essay. 6, Those who aspire to employment at an intermediate or higher class of schools in towns, must give proof of their practical skill in drawing, and their knowledge of the method of teaching it; further, more extensive knowledge of natural sciences, history, and geography.

The Evangelical consistory has published the results of the examinations for office in the "*Amtsblatt*," pointing out the deficiencies to the candidates and to their teachers. The first and most frequently occurring is, errors in orthography, particularly in those papers which are not expressly written for the purpose of answering grammatical questions; then, want of thoroughness and of precision, and clumsiness in treating a subject during examination in practical teaching. These remarks, however, being not intended to characterize the general result of the examinations, but rather to point out the individual deficiencies, and to assist in removing them; it would not be fair to judge the character of our younger teachers by them. The young men show, particularly in the Normal schools, not a little diligence and zeal, and much is done in the many branches of instruction, considering the short period of their studies. Our young teachers are even in demand in other countries.

The examinations of the female candidates are, according to the circular of Jan. 11, 1862, (*Amtsblatt*, No. 82) essentially the same as the first examination of the male candidates, with this limitation, that the range of knowledge in the method of teaching, in arithmetic, in natural sciences, is smaller; that in music nothing but singing of the usual

hymns and children's songs is required; free-hand drawing to the extent of enabling the candidate to give the first lessons, and lastly needlework, viz., knitting, sewing, darning, and cutting of shirts.

There are institutions by which teachers already in office may enlarge their general knowledge or that of special branches. To the first class belong particularly the teachers' conferences, held in every district four times a year, and presided over by the conference director, who is, if possible, the district school-inspector. The meetings are opened and closed with vocal music in three or four parts; a proposition of the science of teaching is discussed, either in strict reference to science or its practical application in the schools, *e. g.* their organization and plan of studies. The proposition must be made known some time before the meeting, and all teachers, except those above sixty years, are obliged to write essays twice a year. The female teachers, too, must write essays, which the conference director verbally criticises; they are, however, excused from attending the conferences of the male teachers. The address of the conference director is a critique on the essays, which, together with the minutes of the conferences, are sent every year to the superintendent general, who reports on them to the synod. Teachers are also invited to deliver lectures on subjects of instruction, followed by a general discussion. These conferences are not of modern date; the only change recently made is this, that one of the conferences is changed into a district school convention, presided over by the district school-inspector, and to which are invited the dean, all the ministers, the bailiff, all those persons who have an interest in and knowledge of public education, including the members of the school-board. The chairman gives a general review of the condition of the public schools in his district, and recommends, as subjects of discussion, such arrangements as require alterations or improvement. Any other person present may propose other pertinent questions for discussion, or make communications about discussions in the conferences. It is recommended that, during such meetings, works done in the public and industrial schools of the district or new apparatus be put on exhibition. The minutes and reports are sent to the State department,* by which the latter is able to perfect its acquaintance with the condition of public schools, their progress or deficiencies, their needs and wishes, which had already been reported by the regular visitation.† To make it possible for the teachers to attend these conferences, the community pays a sufficient remuneration per day, and their traveling expenses.

There is in every district a teachers' association, whose expenses are paid by fixed contributions of the communities, of the teachers themselves, and of the ministers. They subscribe to educational periodicals and books, as well as to other good literary publications, circulate them among the members, and deposit them afterwards in the district library.

* Minist. circ., Nov. 11, 1865, Amtsblatt, No. 124.

† Circular of Consistory, Dec. 20th, 1866. Amtsblatt, No. 141.

The conference directors and some elected teachers form the administration.

Extraordinary courses of instruction, either in special branches or in the general doctrine of education and teaching, are established in the different school-districts when needed; the traveling expenses are paid by the committees, all other expenses by the government. Particular mention should be made of the courses of instruction in organ-playing and composition, obligatory on all revocable teachers, though the permanent teachers are also allowed to attend. The instruction is given by competent clergymen or other teachers, and paid by the government; it is intended to establish such courses in regular succession in all districts.

Voluntary singing associations, frequently also for organ-playing, are established in most deaneries, and encouraged by the government, which pays a remuneration to the leader, and by some of the communities, which pay the traveling expenses.

The prize essays should also be mentioned. They are required every three years, on subjects of the science of teaching; the best essays receive prizes either in money or simply by honorable mention.

Other opportunities for improvement are offered to the teachers. They are: Courses in drawing in a convenient institute, to which volunteers are admitted at the expense of government; courses in the agricultural college at Hohenheim; courses to extend their knowledge of natural sciences; courses in gymnastics to obtain the diploma as teacher; lastly, the want of examined surveyors having directed attention to the teachers of public schools; those who show talent and inclination in that direction may be instructed in surveying at government expense during the summer vacation.

The revocable teachers are at once employed, when they have passed the first examination, being then about nineteen years old. The permanent employment does not, at present, follow before they have reached their thirty-third year; those teachers, however, who are appointed by patrons, obtain permanent employment often directly after having passed the second examination, i. e. when twenty-five years old, the patrons not being obliged to appoint according to seniority. The department of education appoints all revocable teachers, and also the permanent ones, unless the places are in the gift of patrons. There is, however, no competition concerning the employment of teachers as sacristans. The services of sacristans have always been considered in Wurtemberg as services to the community, and there are, therefore, not two different persons interested in the appointment. The school patronage exists still, as a privilege connected with the possession of manors, for 126 Evangelical and 275 Catholic places, and this privilege has not been repealed, because it is not the patrons but the communities who are obliged to pay the increase of salary enacted by law. The administrators of foundations and the communities possessed formerly the privilege of selecting the teachers, because they paid the salaries; but the former lost this

privilege long ago, and the latter in 1836, it having always been an object of ridicule in consequence of many irregularities. They have never expressed the desire to regain this old and in itself very natural privilege, except when one was very discontented with a teacher. A few towns have recently gained some kind of right to nominate teachers, in consequence of their expending more money for schools than they were legally required. The list of candidates is communicated, the most worthy are pointed out, and the authorities select one or more and send their nominations to the department.

The permanent teachers have the same privileges as the civil officers, though the school is considered an institution of the community rather than of the State. They can be dismissed, when a court has sentenced them to the loss of the rights of citizens, or when they have abused their right to inflict corporal punishment, or on account of objections to their morality; in which case, however, the decision does not depend on the department of education, but on that of justice, by the advice of the judges of the tribunal, (the highest court of justice.) The department can, however, suspend a teacher, in which case the latter has to pay for the administration of his place; it can also refuse appointment to permanent employment for a definite or indefinite period.

The salaries are as follows: Every schoolmaster has a claim to a proper dwelling sufficient for himself and family, or an equivalent in money regulated by the rents paid at the time being. The minimum salary is 400 fl., and it rises in the country schools with two teachers, for the first or the only schoolmaster, to 425 fl.; in schools with three teachers, for the first to 450 fl., for the second to 425 fl.; in schools with four teachers, for the first 475 fl., second 450 fl.; in schools with five and more teachers, for the first 500 fl., second 450 fl. In schools with three and more teachers in towns of 2,000 inhabitants and less, the first schoolmaster shall have at least 25 fl. more, the others at least the same as the corresponding teachers at country-schools. In towns with more than 2,000 and less than 4,000 inhabitants, the average salary is to be 500 fl.; in towns between 4,000 and 6,000, 550 fl.; in towns with more than 6,000 inhabitants, 600 fl. at least. But there are such graduations that the average of one portion of the salaries is less by 100 fl. than the other. The schools established since 1865 have no salaries above the average minimum.

Every schoolmaster must take at least 50 florins' worth of his salary in breadstuffs and other goods. The former are paid either in kind or at the current market price, but they are in fact, in the computation of salaries, fixed at prices (1 bushel of spelt at 4 fl.) which are far lower than the actual ones, so that the money value of that part of the salary is increased by the difference. The other goods must not be estimated higher than at 8 per cent. of their local value. In villages about half that portion of the salary is paid in goods. The benevolent intention of this arrangement, fixed by the law of 1858, is to protect the teachers

from the effects of scarcity, and must therefore be considered actual additions to the salary.

The statistics of teachers' salaries were, Jan. 1st, 1868 :

	Evang.	Catholic.	Total
1, Salaries of from 400 to 425 florins,	816	558	1,374
2, " " 425 " 449 "	533	225	758
3, " " 450 " 474 "	155	47	202
4, " " 475 " 499 "	51	14	65
5, " " 500 " 599 "	123	42	165
6, " " 600 " 699 "	94	20	114
7 " " 700 fl. and more	34	9	43
	1,806	915	2,721

More than half of all the teachers belong, therefore, to the lowest salary class, or 45 per cent. of the Evangelical, and 60 per cent. of the Catholic teachers. But this is not the correct expression of the salary ; it must also be considered by how much the salary exceeds the minimum of breadstuffs, whether the communities have estimated the other goods strictly or below the legal value ; some small communities, moreover, increase the salary by liberal presents to the teacher : thus there are not a few in the lowest salary class who are as well off as if they belonged to a higher class. There are certain emoluments not included in the salary, viz., for services to the church as sacristans, cantors, or organists, at baptisms, marriages, or burials, and there are places in which such emoluments are very considerable. The salaries are further increased by an additional pay after long services, a sum amounting in the period from 1867 to 1870, to 52,950 fl., and which was distributed in such a manner that the oldest 400 Evangelical and 200 Catholic teachers received 50 fl. each, and 600 Evangelical and 300 Catholic more, 25 fl. each. The highest additional pay received July 14th, 1867, the oldest teacher, born June 26th, 1811, the lowest received one, born June 28th, 1824 ; these additions are given to all schoolmasters without regard to their income, and are only temporarily refused when any of them shall have made himself unworthy by bad conduct or by neglect of duty. A further increase is allowed to those teachers of both classes who give more than thirty lessons a week, in consequence of the division of the school into sections ; they receive in the country 12 fl., in towns 18 fl., in towns of more than 5,000 inhabitants, 24 fl. a year for every extra hour. This instruction is to be given by schoolmasters and ushers, but may also be given by assistants and female teachers, with special permission of the department.

The salaries as sacristans, minus the expenses connected with that office, are included in the salary. The teacher is obliged to employ an assistant sacristan, whose salary he has to pay so far as his own is above the minimum ; this obligation may exceptionally be dispensed with at the request of the community and the teacher, in which case he himself

receives the remuneration. The obligation to engage an assistant sacristan, dates from 1865 at the request of the teachers, as absolute separation of church and school duties could not be obtained. The request is justified by the necessary regard to health and the dignity of a teacher; for the sacristan is required to ring the bell which indicates the time for labor and meals in ordinary life; he must go to church through snow and wind at an early hour every morning; it is his duty to go on the official errands for the minister—which can scarcely be considered proper for a teacher. The exceptions are now only in small and wealthy communities, where nobody can be found who would perform the duty; and there is no want of teachers who are quite willing to perform the duties for a consideration.

Of the revocable teachers, the ushers and temporary administrators receive seven and a half cwt. of spelt, a room that can be heated, and which contains the most necessary furniture, (or equivalent,) half a cord of beech wood, and a minimum salary of 240 fl. in communities with not more than 2,000 inhabitants, and 280 fl. in those of more than 2,000. The administrators of temporary vacancies, with which church duties are connected, draw the emoluments. The assistants have the same portions in kind as the ushers and 160, 170 and 180 fl. salary. The great youth of many assistants and the frequently occurring difficulty to find decent board for him, has rendered it necessary to cause the schoolmaster to board him—which was formerly a law. Ushers and assistants receive their traveling expenses from the government, when they are transferred to another community without their fault or request.

The schoolmaster may not engage in other occupations without the consent of the department. Permission is freely granted, when such occupations will not be likely to interfere with the school duties; such administration of foundations, clerk to the council, excise officer in small communities, postmasters and telegraphers; public confidence has invested some with the office of bailiff, when they will mostly be compelled to employ an assistant. It has also exceptionally been permitted, that the schoolmaster or his wife keep a store, but it does not serve to increase his authority and very seldom to increase his income. A teacher is very rarely permitted to be an agent of insurance companies, because such agencies mostly require the performance of duties which would interfere with those that the school has a right to demand.

In communities which possess "commons," every schoolmaster, whatever salary he may draw, has the same right to it as any citizen. The value of this right is, however, calculated in his salary. Every teacher employed at a public school is exempt from the obligation to accept public office or to perform personal duties, which every citizen is obliged to do. But he must pay taxes to State and community like any other public servant. When ushers and assistants have passed their examination and are employed at a public school, or an institute for the blind or deaf and mute, or for neglected and weak-minded children, so that their ser-

vices can not be spared, they need only serve six weeks in the army, (having drawn the lot;) they are then furloughed into the reserve, and pass later with their class of drafted men into the Landwehr.

The distinctions of meritorious teachers consist either in money or in the medal for merit in civil service, given at the jubilee, on having completed his fiftieth year of service, or on being pensioned after long service. The community sometimes votes an addition to the pay of such faithful servant. There were exhibitions of Wurtemberg public schools in 1860 and 1863; prizes were awarded by an anonymous friend of education for written exercises of pupils and teachers. The exhibitions have not been repeated, but a description has been published by a committee in Stuttgart, Schweizerbart, 1861 and 1863.

The pension law of the schoolmasters is, in general, the same as that for other government officers; the pension is paid from a special fund, founded and gradually increased by government; in 1865-66 the original stock amounted to 1,086,500 fl.; income from interest, 43,140 fl.; contributions of government, 54,747 fl. 45 kr.; total, 97,887 fl. 45 kr. The expenses were:

Pensions,.....	70,402 fl. 2 kr.
Administration during sickness,.....	6,713 " 45 "
Additional pay of assistants,.....	15,658 " 2 "
Assistance to teachers not privileged to receive pensions, .	360 "

Total, 93,135 fl. 49 kr.

The pension fund pays, for three months, the expenses of administration for a sick schoolmaster; the latter pays not more than one-third of his salary to meet the expenses of administration, when his sickness should last longer. The pension is fixed by the average of the official annual income of the schoolmaster during the last five years, and by the number of years he has served, counting from his thirtieth year, if his appointment as permanent teacher should have been retarded.* The pension is 40 per cent. of the salary after nine years' service, and rises every year $1\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. up to forty years' service, when it would be $92\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. It is of great advantage both to teachers and schools that the *emeriti*, when pensioned by the government, can not claim any part of local endowments, which their successors were bound to pay over to them, and that the pension is high enough to allow the department to relieve a worn and faithful servant of his duties. Formerly no provisions were made for pensions, and the law of 1836 fixes the maximum pension at 200 fl., the deficiency being made up by *gratiation*, on which even

* The same privilege which teachers of public schools enjoy is granted to those who voluntarily established denominational schools, to the head-teachers and ushers of Normal schools, to the teachers of agricultural schools, and to those at the school for the culture of grape-vines; also, though exceptionally, to the teachers of public schools who teach scientific and artistic branches. The teachers employed at the asylums for neglected children, when they have been transferred to the public school, count the years of service at the former, to determine the amount of pension due to them; so do the teachers at private girls' schools when transferred to public schools.

now those must rely who have been pensioned before they have served full nine years, or who must quit the service on account of sickness before they have received a permanent employment.

Provision is also made for the widows and orphans of schoolmasters. The widow may live in the house one year after the death of the teacher, or demand the equivalent and draw for forty-five days the regular salary or pension; widows and orphans receive further a pension, without regard to the salary and number of years their late husbands served as teachers. The amount of the widow's pension is calculated by the revenue of the widow's fund; that of orphans is so regulated that a child whose mother is still alive receives one-fourth, and a child whose father and mother are dead, one-half of the widow's pension. The latter amounts, at present, to 75 fl. On July 1st, 1865-66, there were pensions paid to 581 widows, 28 orphans whose father and mother are dead, and 372 orphans whose mothers are still alive. The orphans' pensions are paid to boys till they have passed the eighteenth, to girls up to their sixteenth year included. In 1865-66 the pension fund paid: Salaries after the death of teachers, 2,488 fl. 26 kr., pensions 68,028 fl. 51 kr., and to widows and orphans of teachers not entitled to pensions, 2,562 fl. 43 kr. These expenses are covered partly by the interest of the stock, which amounted in 1865-66, to 468,200 fl., partly by the annual contributions of the members, (2 per cent. of salary,) which amounted to 26,988 fl. 34 kr., paid by 2,764 active and 263 pensioned schoolmasters, partly by contributions of the government, 5,862 fl. 43 kr. The teachers must, moreover, pay to this fund one-fourth of their salary or increase of salary on being appointed and promoted. There exist, besides, in some deaneries, special funds for the assistance of teachers' widows, which demand small contributions and pay according to their means.

In case of distress in consequence of sickness, &c., the teachers receive what is called *gratialien* from government; 1,500 fl. are set aside for this purpose; there is, moreover, a foundation (by prelateless) of 5,289 fl., from which worthy and needy schoolmasters in certain communities receive assistance; one-fourth of the interest is devoted to buying books for school-children.

The report of the schoolmistresses was, Jan. 1st, 1868:

	Evang.	Catholic.	Total.
Examined,	31	64	95
Of whom were employed at public schools,	24	27	51
On leave of absence at private schools, &c.,	7	27	34
Not employed,	—	10	10
In training,	25	39	64

Their employment as teachers at public schools dates from 1858; the law then passed says: "Female teachers may be employed as ushers and assistants at girls' schools, and at the youngest mixed classes of public schools, with the consent of the community and of the depart-

ment, provided they have proved their qualification." They receive the pay of revocable teachers. The time has been too short to form a correct estimate of this innovation, but so much is clear that it has not found much favor as yet. The circumstance that the Catholics employed sisters of some order as teachers, has caused so much fear of a one-sided education that the employment of female teachers in one town had to be abandoned altogether; Evangelical communities, too, have declined the offer of the department to send female teachers. On the other hand, they have gained much confidence in other places, and as they have learned the rational instruction at industrial schools, it may be expected that their employment will grow more and more in favor with the people; and their employment will be a necessity, if there should be, for any length of time, a deficiency of male candidates. It may be regretted that Evangelical female teachers should be withdrawn from the school by marriage after some time of activity there, and that thus the expenses for her professional education should be lost; yet nobody should blame them, because they have no chance to get any pension, and because they find no asylum in their old age, which the convent offers to the sisters of any order with the Catholics.

The teachers have voluntarily formed some large associations with a view to promote professional improvement, the interests of the teachers as a class, and the well being of their members. Such are:

1, Association of Public School Teachers, founded in 1840, without regard to religious denomination, but at present confined to Evangelical teachers; there are about 1,500 members, divided into a number of branch societies. The association publishes an educational monthly: "The Public School," and an almanac for public schools.

2, Evangelical Association of Public School Teachers for mutual assistance, founded in 1845. It paid, in 1867, 247 fl. to 22 orphans, 1,072 fl. to 101 widows, 149 fl. to 9 teachers in distress. Total, 1,468 fl.

3, Catholic Association of Public Teachers for mutual assistance, originally established for the benefit of needy teachers, widows and orphans only; but it paid in 1866, four-fifths of its income to all widows and orphans and one-fifth only to needy ones.

4, Catholic Association of Public School Teachers, established in 1865. It has 950 members, and publishes the "Quarterly for Education and Instruction," and "The Vereinsbote."

5, Association for the Assistance of Israelite Teachers, founded in 1862. It possessed a capital of 1,300 fl. in 1868, and intends to hold henceforth teachers' conferences. (Staatsanzeiger, July 3, 1868.)

6, Public School Association, established in 1837 by clergymen and teachers on more general principles than those mentioned before; it causes, now and then, prize essays to be written. Their publication, "*Blaetter für länd Deutschland*," has not been issued for some time.

VI. REMARKS.

Before passing judgment on the organization and the results of public education in Wurtemberg, it should, above all, be considered how difficult and great the task of a commonwealth is, which has made it the duty of every citizen to learn, and which must, therefore, procure the opportunities for each and all. The public school draws every child, which does not by other means obtain the required instruction, within its circle, and the school itself is compelled to accept every child. Consequently there are in every school a number of incapable and unwilling pupils, who retard the even course of instruction and absorb a great part of the energy of the teachers, which, if it had been devoted to the better pupils, would have essentially increased the results of their efforts; as it is, the better pupils are exposed to the danger of flagging in their devotion to study, because they are kept down by the heavy weight of the incapacity and idleness of others. Such a number of pupils requires, on the other hand, a great number of teachers. They can not be all schoolmasters, without overburdening the communities; a considerable number must be employed as ushers and assistants. But this results in frequent changes, and the young men often come and go, so that the school is like a pigeon-house; nor is it always possible to obtain well-trained assistants. In short, the compulsory attendance at school results in a great accumulation of teachers and pupils, which weighs heavily on the schools and prevents them from aiming higher. It is, therefore, not astonishing that some persons have recommended the opposite, the voluntary system; they have, indeed, not been successful, and hardly will, unless the constitution and administration of our State should be completely changed. For a government whose departments may and must every where act, helping, advising or commanding, can not give up that guardianship, by which the natural demands of minors for instruction and education are satisfied, and by which the protection of the children against possible unscrupulous neglect of parents is most effectively secured. But it may be asked whether the system of compulsory attendance at school necessarily implies that the child should be compelled to attend school for seven years; for the commonwealth can not reasonably exact more than that a child should receive a certain measure of instruction and education; the one who has received this measure should be free from further obligations, and return to its family for labor and common support. This would be at the same time a means of diminishing the number of pupils, and if those who have been discharged from school were obliged to attend a school of improvement for a reasonable number of hours a week, one would think that rather more would be effected than by the present system. This is a point of the compulsory system little understood as yet,* a point which must necessarily be

* Rümelin: Object of the Compulsory System in "Zeitschrift für die gesammte. Staatswissenschaft." Jahrgang 24, No. 2. Tübingen, 1868, page 311, sqy.

studied by every commonwealth that would change the voluntarily into the compulsory system, and which will force itself upon the attention of those States in which the latter is dominant.

The system of school government is another grave consideration in our public education. It is the continuation of the patriarchal system of former ages ; impulses and guidance, even in detail, proceed from the government ; the communities have little right of self-government, and that little is scarcely taken advantage of. This system offers great temptation for bureaucratic misgovernment, and overburdens the higher, leading authorities with business. This mass of business is caused by the great number of teachers and by the detail of the economical portion of the administration, which is, at least temporarily, increased by every new organization, every new subject of instruction, &c. It may be said that not a small portion of what our public schools effect is owing to the most conscientious diligence of the officers of the two branches of the department of education. Yet it must not be overlooked, that the citizens have been spoiled like children in a household, when father and mother want to do every thing, and that the department is often annoyed by requests and questions about things which might have been done without asking any question, if manfully taken in hand. It is the dark side of too much governing, that courage and the inclination to take responsibilities vanish. The attempt at engaging the interest of the fathers of the school-children has had very little effect ; the law has given them the privilege of electing one to three members of the local school-board ; but in most communities no election ever takes place, because no elector will take the trouble to come to the polls. Whether this is an expression of confidence or of want of interest, it is at all events the consequence of the habit of being governed. A further consequence is, that private persons rarely think of establishing any foundation. There are some of former times : a foundation for distribution of books and cakes on visitation-day, a few for school libraries and similar objects ; but gifts of larger amount are very exceptional. This, however, is again the consequence of the economical condition, (a general mediocre competency and few families of large property,) and of the habit to expect the State or community to take care of every thing.

The great burden of business involves a great responsibility of the department. The centralization of the right of appointment in it alone secures indeed to the teachers a more just appreciation of their merits ; but the system is not calculated to rouse the interest of the communities in their schools, and causes all blame to fall on the appointing authorities, as often as a community thinks itself justified in being discontented with a teacher ; the department has, however, no power to dismiss a definitively appointed teacher, in whom it has been mistaken, and thus to remove the cause of dissatisfaction. Expedients have been proposed to relieve the department of this responsibility and to give the communities a share in the appointment, yet it has not been possible as yet to

find a medium between the election by the community and the appointment by the department. So much is certain, that a government which takes charge of the training of the teachers, must also have some appointments at its disposal, in order to secure a proper sphere of activity to the ablest candidates; but it is also as certain, that a government has too much power when it is allowed to force upon a community a teacher of little ability or affected with moral stains.

But the responsibility of the department is not confined to this one point; it is also responsible for the general course of education in public schools in direct proportion to its legal power. It is, therefore, exposed to many attacks from the most opposite parties, and is charged with being the cause of the disappointment of many—frequently unreasonably great—expectations. The main point of attack is, that the technical members of the department are not taken from among the public school teachers but the clergy, which rouses the fear of theological one-sidedness and of partiality for the interests of the Church. The teachers have advocated the principle that it is a privilege of the school to be represented by teachers in all branches of its administration. Though the general rule will, at least for some time, be observed, that the road to employment in the higher offices leads through the university; yet the Minister of State, in preparing the new school law, has taken the advice not only of clergymen, but also of experienced teachers, and, at present, some of the latter have again been called upon to coöperate in the construction of a new plan for training teachers, whilst they have been employed for some time already as examiners of candidates. The contact of the highest branch of administration and the best practical school experience can not but be advantageous for both.

It has been shown in a preceding section, that the legal demands on the public schools are moderate enough, but that these demands have by degrees grown larger and more manifold. The spirit of our age requires that not only the privileged classes but the whole people should be in possession of what is worth knowing; that every thing useful should be taught at school, that the interest of the pupils should be aroused, and that they should be well prepared for practical life. Our public school system derives great assistance from this tendency, the abler teachers find themselves encouraged; all concerned agree with it in principle; but different opinions prevail in regard to what is attainable. For the humane and popular tendency of our age has a dangerous friend, who threatens to destroy the essential character not only of the public school, but of all educational institutions; it is the fallacy that all knowledge useful to a man in life should be crowded into the school. This fallacy leads to plans of study which dazzle the eye at a distance by the brilliancy of their colors, lead to overwork in the institutions and to misappreciation of the vital element of all study, viz., thorough devotion to one thing—a practice which is surer of success when there are few subjects of instruction, than when the mind is bewildered by the confusing

multitude of studies. Public opinion is, at present, under the influence of this fallacy, and there are few who speak a word of warning, unless, as it has happened, some one goes so far as to contend that the people have a right to demand an æsthetic culture, that dramas should be performed at school, or unless another desires that, instead of the Bible, chemistry should be taught, (to children below fourteen years,) in order to teach the parents to prepare manures more rationally. But such demands do not usually proceed from men who are really in connection with the school; they are propagated by a literature which advocates superficiality instead of thoroughness. It is the same which, most unjustly, accuses our Evangelical public schools, whose very soul is sacred scripture, that every study is neglected or must give way to religion.

The number of subjects taught and the objects in view are naturally limited by the power of comprehension in the children and by the ability of the teacher. Take one step beyond either, and it will be found that not more, but less is effected, and that the force wasted in the fruitless task of doing what is impossible, is turned away from that which is possible. It must also be remembered that our school-books are not like those in France, England, and America, in which the different subjects are taught in a logically-arranged series of questions and answers. Teaching progresses by that system steadily on those leading strings, and the individuality of the teacher is of little account. But, with us, an independent treatment of the subject and method of teaching it, is not only allowed but required. This liberal system, so favorable to the cheerful development of the teacher's powers, requires a thorough knowledge of and penetration into the matter, and a well developed gift of expressing thought clearly; for without the latter, confusion in teaching and learning must be the consequence. The public schools of our days, having discarded their former simplicity, show all the peculiarities of trial-schools; much diligence is shown, but the growth of fruit is impaired by change of subjects and method. Old teachers must find it very difficult to give up old habits, to accustom themselves to new ones, and to impart them to their pupils. It is not difficult to understand that every innovation must be followed by a temporary loss of power and success, when the great difference of ability of the large number of teachers is duly taken into account, and that even real, general progress must be bought by retardation in detail. This fact again proves the difficulty of the task which centralization in government has to perform. There is no want in impelling power; its transmission is also in order, but the power of the different wheels to take up and to continue the movement imparted to it is very irregular.

A more important consideration is the training of able teachers. This is another duty of the department and much has been done in this direction. The communities had formerly to procure their teachers as best they could, and the young men who had an inclination to devote themselves to the profession of teaching, were compelled to find somebody

who would teach them ; a community would apprentice a poor, able boy to the schoolmaster to be trained for the profession ; the school-board had no other obligation but to examine the candidate. It is, at present, the State that takes charge of all that, with all the responsibilities. And there is another fallacy, which leads to unreasonable demands. The teacher of a public school is to be trained to be a teacher of the people in its widest sense. Besides proficiency in elementary subjects and organ-playing, he is expected to possess proficiency in agriculture, in raising of fruit-trees, bees, and silk-worms ; proficiency in manufactures and book-keeping, in gymnastics and military exercises, even in surveying, as has been mentioned before ; in short he is expected to possess so many accomplishments that they are scarcely attainable and scarcely in harmony with his humble position. There is a two-fold danger in all this : either the ablest young men try at once to obtain employment in higher positions, and then the object of training them is lost ; or they feel unhappy in their humble position, unless other opportunities are offered to them which allow them to make use of their accomplishments ; for most young men must teach the youngest classes for at least ten years, and many succeed in obtaining a position which occupies the faculties of a man, only at a time when the fires of youth begin to go down and old age begins to make itself felt. A plan has, therefore, been suggested, to divide the candidates into two classes, in order to provide a more extended instruction for head-masters, and, on the other hand, to educate a class of contented teachers for the ordinary schools.

The same considerations hold good for all branches of the public service. Much is done to develop the intellect for government service ; but the working powers thus produced can not be properly employed during the best part of life ; they have lost a great deal of their original intensity when they are employed at last. It was, therefore, very proper, when the teachers joined the motto "more work" to their motto "better pay." Both mottoes are justified ; but the former would even be the more worthy of attention, if it should at last appear that the number of teachers which the law requires can not be had. Public opinion is certainly still unsettled, but the opinion is here and there expressed that the prosperity of the public school does not so much depend on the number as the quality of teachers, and that the work of instruction would be better done with a few better paid and better qualified teachers.

A frequent theme of public discussion is the hygienic condition of schools. There is no want of regulations about ventilation, attention to the eyes, &c., and it is a rule that the school-room must at least be ten feet high and allow eight square feet for each child. But the compulsory attendance at school renders it necessary to receive a greater number of children, and the school-houses, built at a time when the families themselves were contented with very little space, reflect the general idea of comfort of the time when they were erected ; where the former improved, the latter had the benefit. Teachers and physicians have of late

established rules, to be observed in all new buildings and wherever repairs on a larger scale have been ordered, so that the children will be more comfortable and the rooms larger.

There is one more point that has attracted the attention of the teachers, the press, and the legislature. It is the official position the clergymen hold as superintendents and administrators of schools, which is very erroneously called the subordination of the school to the church. Such subordination does not exist in Wurtemberg, either by the letter or the spirit of the law. The law calls the services of the clergy into requisition, and the constant local supervision is the necessary consequence of the compulsory attendance at school. For he who is compelled to send his child to school has more right to be assured that the instruction will be properly given and moral order maintained, than he who chooses a teacher himself; this is the reason why private institutions are not subject to the same regular control. The clergymen are, moreover, attached to the school as teachers of religion, and represent its and the teachers' interests in the local board. It is for this reason and because there are no other persons who can be intrusted with the inspection, that the legislature has confirmed the arrangement in all its essential features, but has also taken care that the teachers should have their proper share in the administration. Many teachers are discontented with this arrangement, claiming that the teachers alone possess the technical and scientific qualifications; the press, too, speaks against the influence of clergymen in school matters, but then that press is also opposed to the church. The present system will certainly last some time longer and bear good fruit, when ministers and schoolmasters work honestly and kindly together; it will continue to do so as long as the people do not split into a multitude of denominations, but remain in the present two great churches, and as long as the liberty of conscience is not in danger. The old tie connecting church and school should only then be severed by the government when the clergy should abuse their connection with the school, and when they should prove incapable of satisfying the just demands which public life makes on public instruction. The ministers themselves might wish to be relieved of that labor, either when the demands of the school should be increased to such a degree that an honest man could no longer perform the duties, or when the law should force a spirit into the school which would be hostile to the church and Christianity. The separation of the ancient connection between church and school is, however, going on gradually, and it is a natural consequence of this process that the ministers, as such, can, in time to come, no longer officially perform the duties as functionaries of the State or of the community, at public schools. When this shall take place, much will depend on the active interest the communities will take in schools and education, showing ability and willingness to take the government of the local schools in their firm hands and to relieve the department of a very large portion of its responsibilities.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

By secondary schools, we understand here, those schools which stand midway between the elementary school on the one hand, and the University and similar institutions on the other; and which are distinguished from the highest grade of the former, by providing instruction in at least one foreign language, and are connected more directly with the latter by furnishing the preparatory training.

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The existence of this class of schools in Wurtemberg can be traced back to the earliest mention of the country in authentic history. This name (*Wirtinesberk*;) is first mentioned in a document dated 1098, when monasteries, still within the present limits of the kingdom, had schools of higher learning; and these schools (*Lateinisch stadt-schulen*;) are mentioned in the 12th and 13th centuries, the teachers of which (generally clergymen, and styled *pædagogus*, *rector scholarum*, *rector puerorum*;) not unfrequently filled, at the same time, some municipal office, which required a knowledge of the Latin language, and which was the most important study in all schools of this period. The use of the German tongue was interdicted in the school. The first mention of Greek as a study is found in 1520, in a programme of the school at Ulm, where a pupil of Melancthon gave instruction in that language. Besides Latin, the language of the church, of science, of the state, of records of all sorts,—reading, writing, singing, and very rarely arithmetic, were taught, and considering the wants of the age, the studies were eminently practical.

The Reformation of the sixteenth century transferred all schools, then in existence, and all matters relating to instruction, to the state, whose ordinances and the consequent action of ecclesiastical and municipal authority, brought them into a more uniform system. The organization in Wurtemberg is based on the "Grand Ecclesiastical Order," so called, and issued by Duke Christopher, May 15, 1559, and which, sanctioned by the Diet, in 1565, and mended by successive revisions, remained in force down to 1803. The preamble to this Order sets forth its purpose: "To carry youths from the elements through successive grades to the degree of culture demanded for offices in the church and in the state."

Latin Schools.

Two peculiarities of the Wurtemberg system of public schools, viz. the many small Latin schools, and the numerous seminaries for Protestant theological students, and the small number of gymnasiums of the highest grade, are doubtless due to this Order. By ordaining a Latin school "in each and every city, large and small, as well as in the principal vil-

* Prepared by Dr. Hirzel, Rector of the Gymnasium at Tübingen.

lages," and then providing for the transferring of a certain number of promising boys, of twelve to fourteen years of age, from these schools, after an examination at Stuttgard, to the lower, or grammar department of the cloister schools, which were also established by the same Order on the endowments of the secularized convents, and which were organized internally with special reference to the service of the church,—the wants of parents for the lowest as well as the highest classes of the gymnasium were met. We accordingly find, in 1607, 47 Latin schools, with 75 teachers, and 18 cloister schools, in operation; and even as late as 1700 only one regular gymnasium under the designation of the *Padagogium*, at Stuttgard, existed in Wurtemberg. Parents found facilities of a higher education, and of the preliminary University preparation in the Latin schools, and the wise provision of a state examination for the admission of a certain number of promising pupils from these schools, with free tuition, board, and even pocket-money, kept them all up to a common standard of excellence, and at the same time provided the cloister schools with a select corps of students, who, if they profited by these facilities, could enter, after a similar examination, the University with the assurance that if diligent there, appointments in church, school, or civil service would follow after graduation.

With this organic connection of the higher schools, and the stimulus and regulation of their public examination, the Latin school of the Reformation has, in Wurtemberg, survived similar schools in other states. Many of these schools, although poorly endowed, and having pupils of all ages from seven to fourteen, have gained such reputation by the success of their candidates at the state examinations, as to attract pupils from all parts of the country. These examinations, held at the capital, drew together teachers and scholars, with their friends and relatives, and made education, its principles and methods, the topic of conversation in every circle, and helped to diffuse a more general appreciation of its importance than existed in any other community. They have proved highly serviceable in securing immediate attention to any defect or proposed improvement throughout all the schools.

In the programme of instruction for the usual course of four years, (from the eighth to the twelfth,) we find the following subjects of study given: German and Latin reading and writing for the lowest class; Latin grammar with selections from authors; prosody, rudiments of Greek, in the fourth year with music, chiefly sacred. No separate hours are mentioned as being devoted to religious instruction, as the religious exercises every day amply met this want. Of Latin authors, Æsop, Terence, and Cicero were read. Of the 36 school hours per week, 6 were devoted to music, and 3 to religious exercises, leaving 27 hours for Latin, which were reduced to 21 in the fourth year, when 6 hours were given to Greek. The scholars were obliged to speak Latin in school hours, and with teachers and pupils out of school hours. This course of instruction was only slightly modified for near two centuries, when Greek fell more and

more into the background, whilst the memorizing of logical rhetorical definitions in Latin became a favorite study.

The teachers (generally one to a school) were originally appointed by the communal authorities, after having first undergone an examination before the ecclesiastical board (*Kirchenrath*), whilst, if there was sufficient cause, the communal authorities might dismiss a teacher at any time without giving notice. A teacher formally examined and accepted was installed in his office in the name of the Duke, and had solemnly to declare his adherence to the tenets of the Augsburg and the Wurtemberg confessions, and in later years also to the "*formula concordia*," (designed originally to harmonize the special adherents of Luther and Melancthon, and had its origin in Wurtemberg about 1575). Gradually, the communal authorities not having any preference, the privilege of selecting the teacher passed into the hands of the state and church authorities.

The salary of the teacher consisted of: 1, the school fees; 2, a fixed salary paid quarterly, partly in kind (feed, wine, fruit), out of the local funds, and in the few exceptional cases where these were too poor to pay the whole sum, the deficiency was made up by a subsidy from government; 3, residence or free lodging, and the privileges of citizenship. Their salary was not taxed, and no soldier could be quartered on them. For cases of incapacity for service by old age or sickness, no provision was made, except in the Stuttgart gymnasium. Not unfrequently the commune voluntarily contributed to such needs. For the widows and orphans, a widows' fund was instituted in 1698, to which each teacher paid an annual subscription. As regards his social position, the master of the Latin school stood midway between the elementary school teacher and the clergyman.

The Latin schools were communal institutions subsidized by the government; but the law laid on the communes certain duties with regard to these schools, *i. e.*, to provide a school-house, furniture, &c.; and the general superintendence was exercised by a quarterly visitation by the "*Pædagogarchi*," *i. e.* the governing board of the *Pædagogium* at Stuttgart and Tübingen. These two institutions, which were also municipal, and were originally Latin schools, more than other schools of this class, were devoted to preparing pupils for the University, and stood under the immediate superintendence of the University authorities, and were maintained entirely from the government treasury. The course of instruction, both from their locality and their specific object, was naturally more extended. Besides the study of Latin grammar, prosody, and the reading of Cicero, Terence, and Æsop, portions of Virgil, Ovid, Xenophon, Aristotle (*Organon*), Plutarch, Isocrates, Demosthenes, were read (the last mostly in Latin translations). The course also embraced dialectics, rhetoric, mathematics, modern Latin authors (*i. e.* Frischlin's comedies), reading of theological works, catechisms, the Psalms, the gospels in Greek and Latin, and from the year 1686, also physics, astron-

omy, ethics, logic, metaphysics, history, poetry, and mythology. The study in Greek was reduced to the reading of the New Testament, and in some cases Chrysostomos *de sacerdotis*. We find here a chaos of different subjects crowded into about 30 hours a week, Latin, of course, occupying the first place, and all the text-books in other subjects were written in Latin. This study was restricted principally to Cicero, no mention being made of Sallust, Cæsar, Livy, Horace, or Tacitus.

Cloister Schools.

The Cloister Schools deserve special attention, as more than half the students at the University were prepared in them. These schools, divided into lower (which were also called grammar) and higher, prepared young men for the Protestant church and school, and had, down to 1806, a decidedly monastic character. The course of instruction of 19 to 27 hours per week had special reference to the future calling of the pupils, by devoting many hours to the reading of the Old and New Testaments, dialectics and rhetoric. Gradually Hebrew became an important subject of study, whilst Greek was gradually neglected. We also find "*lectio sphaerica*," arithmetic, geography, modern languages, and for the older scholars, morals and metaphysics. History was taught merely in connection with the church, and was simply read aloud during dinner; at a later period, universal and special history were taught in text-books in regular lecture hours. Music, especially church music, was always an important branch.

It was in the discipline more than in the studies that the monastic and theological character of these institutions appeared. At the head of the institution was the Prelate, a high church dignitary, *ex-officio* member of the estates, Ducal councilor, to whom was at the same time intrusted the management of the extensive convent property. Instruction was mostly imparted by two theologically-educated preceptors, (called after 1752, *professors*,) originally appointed by the prelates, but later by the ecclesiastical board. There were daily morning and evening services in the church; choir singing twice a day, reading of religious books during dinner time, and frequent celebration of the holy communion; services on Sunday in the morning and afternoon, and reading of the scriptures at other stated times. Pupils were not allowed to take walks outside of the inclosure, except on special permission from the director, for which application had frequently to be expressed in Latin verses. The pupils wore a prescribed dress, consisting of a long black gown (*toga monastica*) without sleeves. Manifold were the evil consequences of this too rigid discipline, encouraging hypocrisy and secret vices; whilst the hospitality exercised towards all friends and relatives of the pupils formed a pleasant feature and reminiscence of the olden times.

The superintendence of these institutions by the ecclesiastical board was very lax, and the visitations which ought to have taken place every year were frequently omitted for successive years, and no reform of any importance whatsoever was introduced till 1806.

The number of secondary schools in Wurtemberg, in 1808, was as follows: 4 cloister schools, 1 gymnasium, and about 60 Latin schools of from 1 to 3 classes. Besides these there were 8 real schools connected with other institutions, which had no separate school-houses, teachers, or funds.

II. PRESENT ORGANIZATION.

1. Classification—Authorities—Maintenance.

The numerical increase and the new organization of the secondary schools in Wurtemberg since 1806 can be traced to two causes: first the territorial increase of the country, mostly by Catholic provinces; secondly, the totally different educational views which have gained ground. The number of the thoroughly-organized gymnasia gradually rose to seven (7), of which three were specially established for the Catholic population. Besides the gymnasia, 4 lyceums were founded which differ from the former only that the two highest classes are wanting, although the pupils frequently enter the University directly from the lyceum. The 4 Protestant cloister schools, which, in 1806, had been reduced to two, were again established; and in all the chief towns of the newly-acquired territory, Latin schools of one, two, or three classes were established.

The directors of the cloister schools (called *seminaries* since 1806) bear the title of ephori. The two regular teachers (professors) have two assistants called repeaters [*répétiteurs*]; there are special instructors in music, singing, drawing and gymnastics. The directors of the gymnasia, lyceums, and also of some of the larger Latin schools have the title of rector; the teachers of 4 higher classes are called "professors;" of the lower classes sometimes professors and sometimes preceptors; the teachers of the Latin schools are called preceptors and *Collaboratoren*. In those places where there are more than two classes, the teacher of the higher class is called *ober præceptor*.

Connected with the larger schools there are preparatory schools, the teachers of which are called elementary teachers. The aim of these schools is to prepare pupils between the ages of six and eight, who wish afterwards to resort to some higher institution than the common elementary schools, and instruct them in reading, writing, arithmetic, and Bible history.

As teachers for this class of schools could no longer be trained in connection with their theological studies, a philological seminary was founded in connection with the University, and the examinations were regulated in such a manner as to exercise an influence on the studies of candidates for teachers' places. Since 1842 the social and financial position of teachers has been greatly improved; and as official persons they are authorized to wear a prescribed dress, which, however, but few do.

The privilege of electing teachers has, with very few exceptions, been transferred to the central authority. The financial position of these institutions has been so far altered that those portions of the salaries which

came from the church funds are, since 1806, (when the church and state funds were united,) paid from the common state fund.

As regards the maintenance of these schools the following is the general rule : all those schools in which the pupils are not kept beyond their 14th year, i. e., the Latin school in country towns, and the lower classes of the lyceums, gymnasiums and real schools, are communal institutions ; the expense of founding and maintaining these devolving in the first place on the communes : the state making special grants in aid, in all cases of real necessity, both in founding and maintaining such schools. Higher institutions on the other hand are considered entirely state institutions, without depriving the communes altogether of the privilege of paying something towards their maintenance. The sums used for these purposes depend, of course, on the appropriations of the parliament (Stände) which are always made for a fiscal period of three years.

2. Classical or Humanistic Institutions [*Gelehrtenschulen.*]

a. Course of instruction.—From the old programme, Hebrew, logic, and rhetoric disappeared, whilst German, French, geography, history, singing and gymnastics, form regular subjects ; religious instruction has ceased to be mere memorizing, and is, in most cases, intrusted to the care of the clergy, and since 1822 it forms one of the subjects at the central examinations (*land examen*) ; an hour is set apart to penmanship ; decimal fractions are taught, and the whole subject of arithmetic is made more thorough and methodical ; while Latin is not pursued so far as formerly, and Latin speaking has ceased altogether, more attention is given to Greek.

The subjects and course of instruction at a Latin school for scholars between the ages of 12 and 14, is generally as follows : Latin, 12–15 hours per week ; French, 2–3 ; religion, 2 ; history and geography, 3 ; arithmetic, 2–4 ; singing, 1 ; penmanship, 1 ; German, 1–2 ; gymnastics, 3–4 ; total, (exclusive of gymnastics) 26–31 hours. This number of hours is diminished in schools with scholars of different ages by about 6 hours, whilst for those who study Greek, from 3–6 hours are added.

In the complete gymnasium, where the classes of scholars are nearly of the same age and proficiency, for instance at the gymnasium of Tübingen, the programme of studies for scholars between the ages of 13 and 14 would be the following : Latin, 12 hours ; Greek, 6 ; French, 2 ; German, 1 ; religion, 2 ; history and geography, 3 ; arithmetic, 2 ; singing, 1 ; penmanship, 1 ; gymnastics, 3 ; total, 33. The books read are mostly selections from different authors ; Livy, Cicero, Cornelius Nepos, Cæsar, Curtius, in Latin ; and Xenophon, Isocrates, Thucydides, Plato, Diodorus, Arrian, Lucian, &c., in Greek.

There is no uniform plan of studies prescribed by law for all the gymnasiums, as in Prussia, but as a general rule they all follow the same plan. The curriculum for certain studies, such as poetry, law, and Greek, is not obligatory, and its place is mostly taken by French. Otherwise the distinction between obligatory and optional branches of study has ceased to exist, with exception of English, French, and Hebrew. Be-

sides Latin and Greek the following branches of study are now obligatory for all scholars: History, geography, mathematics (algebra, planimetry, trigonometry, stereometry), physics and chemistry, German language and literature, French language, logic, psychology, in some schools, also, archæology, mythology, of late years, also, natural history and gymnastics. Out of the sum total of 28-32 hours per week, (exclusive of gymnastics,) 18-20 hours are devoted to instruction in languages, 3-4 to history and geography, 2 to religion, (knowledge of the Bible in the original languages, articles of faith, and doctrine and morals,) mathematics, 2-4; natural sciences (natural history in the lower, physics and chemistry in the higher), 2; logic and psychology, 1-2 hour. Besides, opportunity is offered to study English; in some cases also, Italian, music, drawing, and Hebrew. In Latin the following authors are read: Sallust, Livy, Cicero (orations, letters, rhetorical and philosophical works), Tacitus, Virgil, Ovid, and Horace; and in Greek: Xenophon, Herodotus, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Lysias, Plato, Homer and the dramatic writers, particularly Sophocles. Besides the reading of authors, translation from German into Greek and Latin are frequently practiced. In mathematics a variety of problems must be solved, and in history dates are committed to memory.

Course of Instruction at the Gymnasium and the Elementary School at Tübingen, 1866-67.

GYMNASIUM.										PREPARATORY SCHOOL.		
Subjects of Instruction.	CLASSES.									Subjects of Instruction.	Classes.	
	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.	II		I	
Latin	8	8	12	12	12	12	12	12	German, read'g, writ- ing, object lessons.	14	19	
Greek	6	6-8	6	6	6	6	4	4		Religion	3	3
* Hebrew	3	3							Arithmetic	3	3	
French	2, 4	2(4)	2	2	4†				Pennmanship	2	2	
* English	2	2										
German	2	2	1	1	2	2	3	3	In classes VII and VIII there are two divisions in mathemat- ics, and in class VII, two in Greek.			
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3				
History	2	2	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½				
Geography	1	1	1½	1½	1½	1½	1	1				
Mathematics	3-3	3-3	2	2	2	2	3	4				
Physics and Chemistry	2											
Natural History		2										
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3				
Singing			1	1	1	1	1	1				
Pennmanship			1	1	1	1	1	2				
* Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2				
Total No. of hours, †	30	29	30	30	31	27	25	24				
Gymnast. ex. cluded ‡												

The lesson hours in *winter* are from 8-12 in the morning, and from 2-4 in the afternoon; optional subjects and gymnastics from 2-5; in *summer*, in the lower class, from 7-11; in the higher, from 8-12; in the afternoon, from 2-4; optional subjects and gymnastics, 7-12; in the afternoon, from 2-6. On Thursdays and Saturdays the afternoons are free, with the exception of the drawing hours from 2-4.

* Optional.

† Only in summer.

‡ The Elementary school properly belongs to the Primary system, but in certain places they receive and prepare a special class of pupils for the Gymnasium.

In all the gymnasiums and seminaries there are libraries, and a good philosophical apparatus; and in the largest, collections of objects in natural history; and in the seminaries, books of music, and a supply of musical instruments. The expenses for books and apparatus are mostly paid out of government and municipal appropriations, but partly from "rectorates' fund," which consists of sums not paid out in places left vacant for some time (*Intercalargefälle*). From this last fund, also, are paid the expenses of printing the programmes, which always contain an elaborate article on some scientific subject, which are published by most gymnasiums annually, and by some biennially. With regard to these programmes there exists a regular system of exchange between the gymnasiums of most of the German states.

c. Method of Instruction.—Great changes have gradually been wrought in the methods of instruction. As regards language the strict old synthetical method has been retained, as in most institutions of this class throughout Germany, by which the scholar is slowly led from the easy to the more difficult, from the simple to the more complicated subjects. The so-called analytical method has in several cases been attempted, but without satisfactory results. The works of Hamilton, Jacotot, Seideustücker, Ollendorf, &c., are consequently not known in the schools of Wurtemberg. Latin-speaking at the secondary schools has been entirely abandoned; and whilst not so many ready writers of Latin are found as formerly, greater attention is devoted to a pure and elegant style; and on the whole the study of languages is carried on in a much more rational way. The same remark applies to the subjects treated of in these languages. Greater importance is attached to the leading ideas, and to their connections. The religious, political, and social life of the nation whose language is studied, is thoroughly considered; good wall or other maps give a correct idea of the topography of the country of the classical author studied, his person, the age in which he lived; his whole literary activity is placed before the pupil in an instructive and attractive way. In reading rhetorical and philosophical writings the different trains of thought are carefully analyzed.

In the lower classes the text-books used are accompanied by excellent chronological tables, maps, and brief notes, which widen the intellectual horizon of the scholar in a sphere of learning where, formerly, he picked out grammatical forms and rules, committed to memory certain phrases, and acquired some proficiency in speaking and writing.

The so-called realistic studies (religion, geography, history, and mathematics) are, likewise, treated in a more methodical and practical manner; even as late as the second decade of this century, the study of these subjects was without scientific method, or without sufficient time, which was all absorbed in Latin, Greek, and Hebrew. History is now taught methodically; a new practical reader has been introduced into the German exercises; religious instruction is reduced to reading the scriptures with suitable explanations, and to memorizing of verses from

the Bible as well as of portions of the catechism; excellent arithmetical and geometrical text-books are used, and the only subject which has not been reached is, perhaps, geography. The careful semi-annual visitations made to every school, by competent men, serve to keep the system in excellent working order.

d. Discipline and Hygiene.—The progressive tendencies of the age have, also, reached the sphere of discipline. The true value of the human being, his rights and corresponding duties, found their way into the higher schools of Wurtemberg, through the writings of Rousseau, Basedow, Salzman, and Pestalozzi, and have effected a material change in the mutual relation of teachers and scholars. The means which the school employs to accomplish its two-fold object, viz., instruction and education, are more suitable to the requirements of each individual; the discipline is more considerate, more cautious—in one word, more humane. Direct bodily punishment, the chief means of maintaining discipline in former times, has not been banished entirely, either by law or custom, but has been greatly modified, and is seldom employed. This mode of punishing will, no doubt, remain in schools as long as it is employed in the family. In its application a great deal depends on the individuality of the teachers, and the early home education of the scholars. The law contains very strict regulations to prevent its abuse. In the gymnasium and most of the other secondary schools, every case of corporal punishment must be confined to a number of strokes with a thin switch on the hand, and must be entered in the school diary. The number of even such cases is rapidly diminishing, especially since the school has established closer connection with the parents by frequent reports regarding the diligence and behavior of their sons. Formerly the system of ranking in place (*locationen*) the pupil, was carried out with iron uniformity, even in the higher seminaries and the University; candidates and magisters, like boys of seven or eight years, went up and down in the scale, and the place each one occupied was put in print, and the *locus* which a seminarist obtained at the University stuck to him through life. Most of these abuses have now been abolished. In some of the larger schools prizes are distributed publicly at the end of the scholastic year, but there are no general regulations or uniform practice on the subject.

Nothing shows the humane spirit of the present system better than the regulations of 1818, concerning the former cloister schools (now called seminaries), by which minute and rigid rules have given way to the common law of kindness between scholars and teachers, as between a father and his sons.

The health and bodily comfort of the scholars, also, occupies more attention than formerly. The period of instruction has been shortened: the afternoon exercises can not begin before 2 o'clock; the vacations have been prolonged; the amount of home work has been reduced; the school-houses and premises, formerly much neglected, are thoroughly

inspected, and any damage quickly repaired, and strict regulations, as to the ventilation, cleanliness, &c., exist and are observed. Much attention is, also, paid to the school benches, on account of the alarming increase of near-sightedness among scholars. Old abuses and neglect, in spite of excellent regulations, still linger, but much has been done, and the best hopes may be entertained for the future.

Up to the year 1792 bathing (outside of a house) was strictly prohibited as being highly immoral; now it is every where encouraged as highly beneficial for the bodily well-being of the scholars, and where there are no natural facilities for bathing, artificial baths are provided.

The introduction of gymnastics, which, in 1863, was made obligatory on all classes, has every where been accompanied by the best results. A regular system developed by Prof. Jaeger was adopted, and subsidies in aid of the necessary apparatus and halls granted, and in many places special teachers were appointed. At certain seasons of the year large gymnastic festivals and public excursions are held. Wherever opportunity offers, swimming, skating, and fencing are practiced.

III. REAL SCHOOLS.

The foregoing remarks concerning discipline apply, also, to another class of schools, an important creation of modern times, viz., the Real schools, which, after various futile attempts, were introduced during the third and fourth decades of the present century. The name was already known in the 18th century; an ordinance in 1793 permitted their establishment, but without immediate results. But the time came, at last, when something definite was done to meet the demand for more realistic instruction. An eminent scholar, F. W. Klumpp, in 1829 and 1830, proposed to reduce the classical subjects at the Latin schools and gymnasiums, and increase the realistic subjects; and as neither the public nor the government received this proposal favorably, a private school was created at Stuttgard in the following year, on these principles.

In 1833 a decisive step was taken by the Estates. They petitioned the government to reorganize the whole system of schools with special regard to realistic studies, and declared themselves ready to make the appropriations necessary for the support of the teachers who wished to prepare for this grade of schools. In consequence of a ministerial resolution of November 16, 1835, the real school was instituted, and aided. Its establishment in any place was left to the local authorities, who were advised to establish two kinds of real schools, viz., higher and lower ones. The resolution provides for regular visitations to be held at the real schools, by the district school inspectors (this, since 1850, was the official title of the *pædagogurchi*). The government appoints all the teachers, and for the fiscal period 1856-1859, appropriated the sum of 38,000 florins, and in 1856 the programme for the examination of real school-teachers was published; and in 1858 a seminary (at Tübingen) was established for the education of such teachers, which, however, was discon-

tinued in 1866, and in the place of this preparation, candidates for teachers' places at real schools were required to study for several years at some polytechnic school. The examination programme is a two-fold one, viz., for teachers at higher and for teachers at lower real schools, and demands a very thorough acquaintance with the different subjects taught. Each of these examinations was both theoretical and practical. Traveling, in order to extend by observation in similar schools, and in practical life, the knowledge gained at the school, was strongly recommended, and a government subsidy promised in aid. But with this aid the attainment of the required qualifications was expensive to the candidates. Another drawback was the want of some central subject of instruction for this whole class of schools, and the question was discussed whether French, German, or mathematics should be the subject. With many the variety of subjects formed an essential characteristic of the real schools.

In reference to teaching in this class of schools, a new programme of examination was published July 20, 1864, and is still in force. The most important points are : 1, the examination ceases to be two-fold, for the second (practical) examination is substituted a trial in teaching, which presupposes that the candidate has taught, at least one year, at some real school ; 2, the theoretical examination is in some respects made easier, and in others, *e. g.* drawing, more difficult ; 3, an option is given between the historic-philological, and the studies in natural sciences ; 4, opportunity is offered to all candidates to be examined in Latin. The subjects of examination for candidates for teachers' places at the lower real schools are : Religion, German, French, history, geography, mathematics (equations of the second degree, stereometry, trigonometry,) natural history, physics, chemistry, drawing ; for candidates for the higher real schools, the examination extends in the historic-philological division over the following subjects : German language and literature, French language, English language, history and geography ; Latin and Italian optional ; and in the division for natural science : Mathematics (spheric trigonometry, lower analysis, descriptive and practical geometry), physics (history of physics), mechanism, chemistry (technical and analytical), natural history (thorough knowledge of one of the three kingdoms). The number of teachers who have passed these examinations has not met the actual demand. To meet this demand the students in the Protestant and Catholic seminaries, by a resolution of 1866, are freed from the study of philology if they wish to become teachers. At the University a seminary for modern philology has been established, and quite recently, another for physico-mathematics.

The following statistics show the increase of realistic instruction : March 1, 1833, the number of real schools was 15 ; in 1843, the number of schools was 52 with 90 teachers, and 1,371 scholars ; in 1867, the number of schools was 79, of teachers, 152, of scholars, 4,917.

The subjects of instruction at the real schools are : French, mathe-

matics, natural sciences, drawing. In the second line follow : Religion, German, history, geography, singing, penmanship, gymnastics, and in some schools English, as an optional subject. As a sample, we give the course of instruction, and hours per week, exclusive of gymnastics, at the REAL GYMNASIUM at Stuttgard, 1867-1868.

SUBJECTS.	CLASSES.							
	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3
Latin	6	8	9	9	10	12	12	12
French	3	4	4	5	6			
English	3	3						
German	1	1	1	2	2	3	4	5
History	2	2	1½	1½	1½	1		
Geography.....	1		1½	1½	1½	1½	2	
Physics.....	2	2	2					
Geometry.....	4	3	3					
Arithmetic and Algebra.	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4
Drawing.....	5	5	5	4	2			
Writing			1	1	1	2	2	2
Singing.....				1	1	1		
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3	3	3		
Total....	31	32	32	31	30	27	27	26

We also give the course of instruction, and hours per week, exclusive of gymnastics, at the Real School at Tübingen, winter 1867-68.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	CLASSES.			
	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion	a. 2 b.	3	2	2
French.....	5 5	6	6	8
English *.....	2 2			
German	2	2	3	4
History.....	2	1	2	1
Geography	2	1	2	1
Natural History.....			2	2
Physics.....	2	2		
Chemistry.....		2		
Planimetry	3 3	4	2	
Stereometry and Trigonometry.....	3			
Arithmetic.....		2	4	5
Algebra	3 2			
Drawing	6	6	2	
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	
Singing.....		1	1	
Penmanship		1	2	2
Total.....	30	31	29	25

NOTE.—In class IV, instruction in French, English, mathematics, &c., is given in two divisions.
* Optional.
The lessons are given in winter from 8-12, 2-4, including optional subjects, 2-6 ; in summer : 7-11 and 2-4, including the optional subjects and gymnastics, 2-6.

There still remains to be mentioned the "Burgher School," in Stuttgart, instituted in 1863, by the commune, but under the superintendence of the Ministerial Bureau for Higher Instruction. Its general aim and course, also, is the same as that of the real-school, with this exception, that French is an optional subject, which is commenced in class V with scholars 11 years of age, and is pursued by about half the school. This institution, in 1869, numbered 426 scholars in 9 classes, with 9 teachers. The school-fees vary from 8–12 florins, with an extra charge of 4 florins for French. Private munificence has provided free places for 16–18 scholars. The number of lessons per week varies from 22–23. The teachers are examined as real-school teachers, and are appointed by the government.

4. *Education and Examination of Teachers.*—Prior to 1793, and practically down to 1829, the teachers of secondary schools were graduates of the theological seminaries and the University, in which there existed no special courses for future teachers. In 1828, competitive examination was introduced, but failed to accomplish its object for want of definiteness as to the subjects and modes, and of any large and immediate inducement. The modifications of 1850 and 1853 supplied these defects, and those of 1865, providing a new examination for philological teachers, and those of 1866, regulating the examination of theological students in Tübingen, have settled the system as follows: (1.) A philological seminary exists at Tübingen, and pedagogical instruction is given at the theological seminaries by eminent teachers. (2.) Competitive examinations are held twice a year for vacancies in the chief and subordinate situations in the secondary schools. (3.) The examining board is composed of professors of the University, and prominent gymnasial teachers. (4.) The examinations for second grades of position, are held separate and with different requirements, and on the different subjects—may be held at different periods by the same candidate—the philological at one, and the scientific at another. (5.) No candidate can be admitted to the examination without the diploma of the University, and the certificate of the theological seminary, with special exceptions for subordinate positions, and for the real-schools. If the vacancy is for a professor's chair (head-master of the first class, gymnasium,) the candidate must submit a Latin essay on a theme set by the examiners. Students of Protestant theology as well as Catholic theology, at the William College, are exempted from certain requirements if they show aptness and seem to devote themselves to teaching. (6.) The examinations are both written and oral. The subjects are obligatory and optional, and the extent, and authors which must be read, are specified. For the *preceptor's* place: Classical philology, German and French, arithmetic, geography, history, religion (for non-theologians;) the following are optional: Algebra, geometry, and singing. For the *professor's* place, the examination goes deeper, and includes, also, physics, and the literature of German and French, English, Hebrew. Both classes of candidates must give a trial

lesson. (7.) In according the certificates, the greatest weight is attached to classical philology and the trial lessons.

The rules and regulations of the Philological Seminary were revised in 1867, when provision was made for a separate library, and students were strongly urged to become thoroughly acquainted with German and French.

For teacher in the lowest classes of the real and Latin schools (*Collaboratoren*), there is an examination, established July 20, 1864, in which a distinction is made between them and the elementary teachers, (with pupils preparing for the secondary,) who do not instruct in any foreign language. The last are required to pass the common elementary teachers' examination, and the former must pass on the following subjects: Bible, history, geography of Palestine, penmanship, German composition, elements of history, geography, natural history and arithmetic; Latin, (if they are to be employed in Latin schools,) French, (if in real schools); *optional*: planimetry, drawing, and singing.

5. *Legal, financial, and social position of teachers generally.*—The government having provided this elaborate examination apparatus, to support competent teachers, labored at the same time to improve their position. The first attempt, in 1793, accomplished little. In 1806, the "Supreme Board of Studies" was intrusted with the supervision of the elementary schools, and the University, while the secondary schools remained under the superintendence of the church authorities till 1817, when they came under the former board, which was changed, and designated a "Council of Studies" (*Studienrath*.) The teachers of these schools were always considered as belonging to the clerical profession, and aspired to join the clergymen's widows' fund. In consequence of their number being increased on the establishment of real schools, which were less clearly connected with the church, some legislation became necessary to regulate their position. By a resolution of July 6, 1842, they were divided into two grades. The first, teachers of the higher classes (scholars of over 14 years), were placed on nearly the same footing of other government officers, except in their claim to a pension, which was fixed at 700 florins, and their widows at 80 florins. The second grade, teachers of the lower classes (scholars between the ages of 6 and 14), fared even worse. In spite of the appeals to the public and the government, it was only after the revolutionary movements of 1848, that teachers of the first grade were placed, in regard to pensions, on a level with other government officials, by a resolution of September 7, 1849. The law of April 4, 1861, raised the widows' pension, of teachers of the second grade, to 120 and 150 florins, which, by another law, (July 16, 1868,) was increased one-third, thus satisfying all just demands.

Prior to 1848 the salary of secondary school-teachers amounted to 600 florins with free residence; and of the teachers of lower classes to 250–500 florins. All these places were, in 1858, improved by an increase of 50–200 florins, with this provision, that this additional sum was paid entirely out of the government funds to the teachers of the higher classes,

whilst to the teachers of the lower classes one-half of this increase was charged on the communes, which in many cases were neither able nor willing to pay the same. In 1864 another increase of fifty florins was granted to teachers of all grades, payable in the same way. Of late the salaries have been again raised, but in such a manner as to distinguish between those employed at larger institutions and those at smaller institutions. A sum of 5,000 florins is annually appropriated, which is distributed in 25 shares of 100 florins each, and 50 shares of 50 florins, according to the length of time they have been in service. In 1867, 75 teachers out of a total number of 186 enjoyed the benefit of this fund.

The salary of teachers at the smaller Latin and real-schools will be increased every five years by 25 florins, till it reach 700 florins; that of the *collaboratoren* is in the same manner to be raised to 725 florins; and that of the "*preceptors*" and larger real-school teachers to 1,000 florins. The salary of teachers at the gymnasia is somewhat higher, varying for teachers in the lower classes from 800 to 1,450 florins, for those in higher classes from 1,200 to 2,000. Although much has thus been done to improve the financial position of teachers, the increase does not exceed the constant increase in the price of all necessities of life.

Before considering the civil position of the teachers as officials, it will be necessary to recall that the government superintendence of schools was separated from the other branches of the administration by the establishment of a special Ministry of Public Instruction in 1805, at the head of which the famous historian Spittler was placed. Till 1848 this Ministry was associated with the Ministry of the Interior, but in that year it received its present independent organization. Next to the Ministry stands a central board, at first called *Oberstudiendirection*, and since 1817 *Studienrath*, but in 1866 changed to a Ministerial Bureau of Classical and Real-schools, (*Ministerial abtheilung für Gelehrten und Realschulen.*)

The distinction between the different classes of teachers, marked by the different authorities to which they belong, and the different salaries paid, shows itself in the separate conferences which each class of teachers hold among themselves, only occasionally uniting for the purpose of a general conference. These conferences, although entirely voluntary, are indicative of a certain class spirit. At these conferences, discussions and essays on didactic, pedagogic, disciplinary, and financial questions are in order.

There is published at Stuttgart a pedagogical journal, liberally subsidized by the government, (*Correspondenzblatt für Gelehrten und Realschulen,*) which may be considered as the Wurtemberg organ for this class of teachers.

In the "classes of rank" (*Rang-ordnung*) of the different officers of the civil service, the teachers of the secondary schools have a more appropriate position since 1821. But even here a distinction is made, to the disadvantage of the teachers of higher real-schools, who rank some

degrees lower than those at the gymnasia. A similar distinction is made in their relations to the school authorities. The teachers of the Latin and real-schools in the country towns are all under the jurisdiction of the local school-board, which since 1822 is formed by the so-called "Church convention," (*Kirchenconvent*), consisting, under the presidency of the clergyman of the place, of the mayor, and one or more members of the communal council. This board has the immediate superintendence of these schools, receives the reports of the teachers, visits the schools, makes an annual report to the central authorities on their condition and the character and success of the teachers. The teachers may attend the sessions of this board, but legally they have no seat or vote, whilst the elementary teachers are *ex-officio* members. This local board does not report directly to the central authorities, but through the district board (*Bezirksamt*), composed of the *amtmann* (governor of the district) and the dean (*Decan*), the highest ecclesiastical dignitary of the district. The seminaries, lyceums and gymnasia, on the other hand, deal directly with the central authorities. A new resolution of January 20, 1868, grants the same privilege to the higher real-schools at Stuttgart and Ulm, but not to the other higher real-schools. With these few exceptions (Stuttgart and Ulm), the teachers of the real and Latin schools do not rank with those of the classical institutions, not only in their financial position, but as officers of the civil service.

Secondary Institutions of a Private Character.

Public schools of this grade are so numerous and good that there are only four private secondary schools in Wurtemberg, viz., Hayer's Institute at Stuttgart, with 159 scholars; Kornthal (a settlement of a peculiar ecclesiastical organization somewhat similar to the Moravians) Church School, with 86 scholars; the Salon near Ludwigsburg, with 95 scholars, and Dr. Klose's institution at Canstatt, with 40 scholars. The scholars in these institutions are prepared for the higher kinds of trades, for the higher Gymnasium classes or the lower Seminary classes, as also for the University, the Polytechnic School, and the Military Academy.

All private schools of this grade must at their establishment get a special permit from the Ministry, and are subject to the superintendence and inspection of the State authorities, viz., of the district board, and the ministerial Bureau for Classical and Real-schools. The directors of each must make an annual report, through the district board, of the number of teachers, scholars, and other statistics called for, and also statements as to the intellectual and moral character of the teachers; and forward any complaints made by pupils against teachers and directors. These schools receive no subsidy from the State funds, and their directors and teachers are at this time not obliged to pass a State examination.

The Maturity Examination.

The maturity or final examination is held twice annually, at Easter and in the Fall, by an examining committee composed of teachers of the different secondary schools in Stuttgart, under the superintendence of

the "Superior council of studies" (*oberstudien behörde*.) This examination was first introduced, (1809–1811.) to prevent poorly qualified candidates from resorting to the seminaries or University, to escape military service, from which such students were exempt. This maturity examination rightly carried out, should have exercised the same influence on the higher classes of the gymnasia, as the central examination (*Landexamen*,) did on the Latin schools; but as it was at first exceedingly lax, and as no limit as to age was presented, it exercised an unhealthy influence, and discouraged teachers and real scholars to see many unqualified candidates enter upon the academic studies. Between 1850–1854, therefore, the regulations were essentially altered: (1,) by limiting the age of admittance to the 18th year, completed; (2,) by excluding all candidates not recommended by the teachers at the gymnasium; (3,) by making this examination a test of the testimonials given by the teachers, and limiting the subjects to Latin, Greek or French, German, mathematics, and history; (4,) by adding geography and logic for those who had not gone through a regular gymnasial course. These conditions, and a firm and consistent administration have exercised a beneficial influence, both on the gymnasia, and the University. Besides this examination, another has been introduced at the end of the gymnasial course by two ministerial resolutions of July and August, 1868, to meet the requisition of the new military law, which required every man to serve in the army, but absolves graduates of the gymnasia, the real schools, and lyceums, who pass this examination, with honor, by one year's voluntary service. The same questions are sent annually at the end of the scholastic year, by the central authorities, to the directors of the various classical schools, and answered on one and the same day by all the pupils. The subjects are: Latin, Greek, (French for those who do not study Greek,) German compositions, algebra up to equations of the first degree, geometry as far as circles, history up to the end of West Roman empire. The oral part of the examination comprises translations from the Latin and Greek, (French for those who do not study Greek.) Those who pass the examination receive a certificate which entitles them to enter the army for the one year's voluntary service.

Similar regulations were made for the real-schools. The written examinations are on algebra to equations of the second degree, logarithms, planimetry complete, stereometry, and the most important portions of trigonometry, translation from German into French, German composition, history, geography, mathematical geography, special geography of Europe and North America, linear and freehand drawing. The oral examination comprises French, reading of German prose and poetry. In the place of stereometry and trigonometry, scholars may be examined in mercantile arithmetic, physics, chemistry, and English. Scholars who pass the examination receive a certificate by which they absolve the military requisition by one year's service, and which also enables the holder to enter the mathematical class of the polytechnic school.

III. STATISTICS.

1. *Attendance at school compared with the total population and the religious denominations.*

The total population of the kingdom of Wurtemberg on Dec. 8, 1867, amounted to 1,778,479, viz., 1,220,199 Protestants, 543,601 Catholics, 3,017 belonging to other denominations, and 11,662 Jews. During the scholastic year 1866-1867, the secondary schools of Wurtemberg were attended by 10,553 scholars, (one scholar to every 168 inhabitants.) Of these scholars, 8,476 were Protestants, 1,730 Catholics, 334 Jews, and 13 belonged to other religious denominations. It appears that secondary education is most sought for by the Jews and least of all by the Catholics, while the Protestants occupy an intermediate position, for there is 1 scholar to every 34 Jews, 1 to every 148 Protestants, and 1 to every 814 Catholics.

The attendance on Gymnasia, Latin and Real-schools showed the following figures :

Scholars at the Latin Schools and Gymnasia,.....	4,646
Secondary scholars in Elementary Schools,.....	495
Total,.....	5,141
Scholars at the Real-Schools,.....	3,917
Real Scholars in the Elementary Schools,.....	495
Total,.....	5,412

Or one Latin scholar to every 345 inhabitants, and one real-scholar to every 328. Classing the Latin scholars [this term here always includes the scholars of the Gymnasia] according to religion, there are among them 4,081 Protestants, 947 Catholics, 106 Jews, and 7 of other denominations; consequently there is 1 Latin scholar to every 298 Protestants, 1 to every 584 Catholics, and 1 to every 110 Jews. Among the Real-scholars there are 4,395 Protestants, 783 Catholics, 228 Jews, and 6 belonging to other denominations; thus there is 1 real-scholar to every 277 Protestants, 1 to every 694 Catholics, and 1 to every 51 Jews.

Statistics show that of 4,081 Protestant scholars in the Latin schools, only 440 advance into the higher classes; of the 947 Catholic scholars only 202, and of the 106 Jewish scholars only 6. Of the total number of Latin scholars there devote themselves to higher academic studies one-fourth of the Catholic scholars, one-ninth of the Protestants, and one-seventeenth of the Jews; that is to say, sixteen-seventenths of the Jewish scholars close their education with the fourteenth year and enter some practical sphere of activity; the same is the case with eight-ninths of the Protestants and three-fourths of the Catholics. In the Real-schools the number of those who close their education with the fourteenth year is comparatively still larger. Of 5,412 real-scholars only 366 enter the higher Real-schools, *i. e.* about one-fifteenth.

In the scholastic year 1852-1853, the 86 Classical schools (Gymnasias, Lyceums, Latin-schools and Seminaries) were attended by 4,105 scholars, and the 66 Real-schools by 3,367 scholars; showing an increase in fourteen years of scholars at the Classical schools of 1,000, and at the Real-schools of 2,000. The number of Classical schools during this period has increased by 4, that of the Real-schools by 13.

2. *Number of schools, classes, and teachers' places.*

During the scholastic year 1866-7 there were in operation 9 (so-called) elementary schools, with 22 secondary classes and 22 teachers' places; 90 classical schools [viz. 4 lower theological seminaries, 7 gymnasias, (3 with boarding-schools,) 4 lyceums, and 75 lower Latin schools,] with 229 classes and 247 teachers' places, (viz., 33 classes, with 60 teachers' places at the seminaries and upper classes of the gymnasias and lyceums; 67 classes, with 64 teachers' places in the middle and lower classes of the gymnasias and lyceums; 129 classes with 123 teachers' places in the lower Latin schools. The lower Latin schools are differently organized; 34 consist of only 1 class, 30 of 2, 10 of 3, 1 of 5 classes (called *Pädagogium*) at Esslingen. The average number of scholars in one class of the classical schools is therefore 20; 19 to one teacher; in one class of the (so-called) elementary school, 45.

In the same year (1866-7) the number of real-schools was 79, viz., 70 lower real-schools, and 9 with higher real-classes. The total number of classes is 167, (16 provisional,) with 158 teachers, viz., 19 in the higher and 139 in the lower real-school classes. Their organization differs; 1 (in Stuttgart) with 29 classes; 3 with 8 classes each, 4 with 5 classes, 6 with 3, 11 with 2, and 54 with 1 class each. There are in 167 classes, 4,917 scholars, (an average of 29 scholars to a class,) with 178 teachers, (including 20 temporarily appointed,) an average of 27 scholars to a teacher. During a period of 34 years, (1833-1867,) 201 real-school teachers were appointed, an average of 6 new appointments per year. In 1867, 14 new real-school teachers were appointed, whilst only 5 left. In the same year, 20 candidates passed the examination, (viz., 5 real-school teachers, 13 *collaboratoren*, and 2 real professors. During the 14 years from 1853 to 1867, 151 classical teachers were appointed, an average of 10 new appointments per year. During the same period, 156 candidates passed the examination. This number, however, was not sufficient, and the government has hitherto been constantly obliged to appoint a number of non-examined candidates.

3. *Expenses.*

a. *Contributions by the State and the commune.*—The State contribution for superior instruction during the fiscal period 1867-1870 amounted to 864,150 florins per annum, which are distributed in the following manner:

I. Expenses of the Classical and Philological Seminary,....	1,975 fl.
II. Expenses of Classical Instruction,	
Lower Seminaries and Central Examination (<i>Landexamen</i>)	81,195 fl.
Gymnasias, Lyceums, Latin Schools,.....	118,683 fl.
Sundries,	8,170 fl.
Total,.....	207,948 fl.

III. For Real-schools,.....	59,635 fl.
IV. For Real-schools and Classical Schools in common,	
Gymnastics,	23,000 fl.
Increase of salaries, &c.,.....	50,592 fl.
Contributions towards the pension fund,.....	20,500 fl.
Contributions towards the widows' fund,.....	500 fl.
<hr/>	
Total,.....	364,150 fl.

The sum devoted by the State to the classical institutions is more than three times as large as that devoted to the real-schools. Even if the amount (81,195 fl.) chiefly devoted to theological instruction is deducted, the remainder (126,753 fl.) is twice as large as that given to the real-schools. The reason is not to be found in any governmental preference for the classical at the expense of the realistic instruction, but to the fact that the former have certain historic claims, which can not at once be ignored or changed. By degrees the number of classical schools is being reduced. There are already quite a number of Latin schools, which for years have scarcely been able to survive the competition of the modern instruction.

With regard to the real-schools the principle has been maintained that schools of the lower grade are essentially communal institutions, to be supported entirely by the communes, with only occasional subsidies from the State, which was originally the case with many of the Latin schools, but with regard to these, the church authorities lent a helping hand, and many even were entirely supported by such aid and special church funds. A striking example of this is the gymnasium and the real-school at Stuttgart. The former, founded in the 16th century and supported originally by the church, is at the present time almost entirely supported by the State, whilst the real-school, founded in 1818, is for the greater part maintained by the commune of Stuttgart. The expense of the real-school in Stuttgart for the scholastic year 1867–1868 amounted to 45,154 florins, which was met as follows: by the State, 15,243 fl.; by the commune, 16,011 fl.; by school-fees, 16,900 fl. The expense of the gymnasium for the same period was 48,816 fl., while the commune of Stuttgart only pays 817 fl., and the State 35,999 fl., the remainder, 12,000 fl., being borne by the school fees. The proportion of State contributions to the communal ones is therefore as three-fourths to one-sixtieth.

In December, 1861, the total expense of the real-schools was 166,141 florins, viz., State contribution, 54,527 fl.; communal contribution, 78,440 fl.; school-fees, 33,173 fl. Entirely different is the proportion with regard to the classical schools for the same year, which we take, as we have no later exhibit of their financial status. In that year the total expense amounted to 177,197 fl. Of this sum, 75,831 fl. were paid by the State, and 77,097 fl. by the communes, whilst the remainder, 24,000 fl., was paid by the school-fees. Since then the number of schools and of teachers has been increased; since 1858 and 1864 the salaries have been considerably raised, the increase with the 60 teachers' places in the upper

classes being paid by the State, and in the lower classes half by the State and half by the communes. But the proportion between the two contributing parties has not been altered materially.

b. School-fees.—There are no uniform regulations with regard to the amount of school-fees to be paid, nor the modes in which the avails shall be employed. There are towns (generally wealthy) where no school-fees are exacted either in elementary or in higher schools, as in Nagold. In some communes the fee is small, and is raised to remind parents of the fact, and the value of public instruction. The highest sum is paid by the externes (non-boarders) pupils of the lower seminaries, viz., 28 fl. per year, which is semi-annually distributed in equal portions to the three teachers longest in service. The lowest school-fee known is 2 florins per annum. Unless affected by endowments, or other special cause, the school-fee at superior schools is higher than at lower ones, and in larger than in smaller towns; and at real-schools than at gymnasia, lyceums, and Latin schools. In Stuttgart, where the school-fee at the real-school varies (according to the class) from 16 to 26 florins, at the gymnasium it is from 20 to 22 fl. At the real-school of Tübingen the school-fee in all classes is 6 fl., but in the gymnasium of the same city it varies from 11 to 18 fl. In some country towns the real-scholar annually pays 2 and the Latin scholar 7 florins; frequently sons of teachers are entirely exempt. In many institutions, especially in those which are aided or supported by the State, a certain number of free places exist, which are granted annually to the most deserving scholars designated by the teachers of the school. In some towns there are legacies for maintaining free places, which are bestowed according to the conditions of the legacy.

From the earliest times the school-fees have constituted part of the teachers' salary. The amount chargeable to this source is calculated according to an average for a number of years. This mode of raising income and its application to the salary of teachers has a good influence on the attendance of pupils and the zeal of teachers, but its collection by the teachers often engenders strife among the teachers of different schools, and between teachers and pupils. The government therefore of late has transferred the collecting of the fees to some public officer, with instructions to pay a certain proportion to the teachers. This is done in all new schools and classes, and is gradually applied to old institutions, which cling to their traditions. The rule is not uniform—in some schools the whole sum goes to a special fund for the benefit of the teachers, as in Stuttgart; in others, as at Tübingen, the whole sum is paid into the city treasury, and the teachers are paid a stipulated salary, without reference to the amount collected from this source; in others, it is paid into the treasury, with no advantage to the teachers.



PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE FREE CITIES OF GERMANY.

L. HISTORY. POPULATION. GOVERNMENT.

THE "FREE HANSEATIC CITIES," Frankfort on the Main, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, formed a union in 1815, by which they became a corporate member of the German Confederacy, with one joint vote in the diet. This union is the sole remnant of the famous "Hanseatic League" which, first entered into by Hamburg and Lübeck in 1241, for mutual safety and the protection of their trade, was extended to embrace all the principal cities between Holland and Livonia, and was for many years the undisputed mistress of the Baltic and German Ocean. After the 15th century the power and influence of the League gradually declined, until in 1680 it was dissolved, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck alone remaining faithful to their ancient alliance.

As "free cities" they are also remnants of the once numerous Imperial cities, which were not subject to any superior lord but were immediately under the empire, possessing various privileges and distinctions granted by the emperors or obtained by purchase.

HAMBURG is the largest of these cities and the capital of a small republic of an area of 135 square miles, consisting of two distinct territories, one of which is the joint property of Lübeck. Its population in 1860 was 230,000—176,000 belonging to the city and its suburbs, of whom 10,000 are Jews. Hamburg ranks as the greatest emporium of trade on the continent, and, next to London, has the largest money exchange transactions in Europe. It is also one of the principal ports for transatlantic emigration, and the center of a very extensive business in marine insurance. The government is in the hands of a moneyed aristocracy, the sovereign power being exercised by a senate of eighteen members, and a legislative body of 192 members. The latter body elect the senators for life, who annually elect a president from their own number.

FRANKFORT possesses a small territory of about thirty-nine square miles, with a population in 1861 of about 87,500. It is one of the most ancient cities of Germany, and from its position has from an early period been the commercial and political center of the nation. It derives great wealth from its banking transactions. The government is vested in the senate, with four syndics, twenty-one members, and two presidents, elected by the citizens; the legislative chamber is composed of fifty-seven members, and the highest court of appeal is, as is also true of Hamburg, the supreme tribunal at Lübeck.

BREMEN possesses an area of 112 square miles, with a total population in 1862 of 98,500, of which 67,000 belonged to the city itself, 6,500 to Bremerhaven, and 4,000 to Vegesack. It carries on an extensive commerce, especially with the United States, and is an exceedingly thriving place, its trade having more than doubled in ten years. The territory includes, besides the main port at Bremerhaven, two market towns and about sixty villages. The government is intrusted to a senate composed of four burgomasters, two syndics, and twenty-four councilors, and to a convention of resident burghers.

LUBECK, nominally the chief of the Hanse towns, has an area of 142 square miles, consisting of ten isolated portions, and including a population of 50,614. It is still a thriving commercial town, though by no means so prosperous and important as formerly. The government is vested in a Senate of fourteen members, and an Assembly of 120 members.

II. GENERAL HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

In the FREE CITIES, as in all the older cities of Germany, and indeed of Europe, the earliest schools were formed in connection with the convents and cathedrals—they were of the church and for the church—and so continued for centuries. Of the three schools at Frankfort, the earliest was that attached to the collegiate church of St. Bartholomew, whose origin dates in the earliest times of the Carlovingsians, at least, in the reign of Louis the Germanic, early in the ninth century. The others, connected with the churches of Our Blessed Lady upon the Mountain and of St. Leonard, were probably commenced early in the fourteenth century. The origin of the cathedral schools of Hamburg and Bremen may be credited to the activity of the noted Ansgar, or Anscharius, apostolic legate and afterwards bishop of Hamburg, who is known to have previously superintended the Benedictine convent school at Corvey, from which the first teachers for these schools were brought. The date of the school at Hamburg is fixed at 834—of the one at Bremen, somewhat earlier. The school at Lübeck was probably founded in 1168, when Bishop Gerold of Oldenburg removed his bishopric and established the cathedral there. The Hamburg church and school were several times destroyed—in 840 by the Normans, in 1012 by the Wenden, and in 1072 by the Slaves—and they were yet again rebuilt in the 13th century; they have continued in existence together until the beginning of the present century, when the cathedral, being very much out of repair, was torn down and the school ceased. A list of the scholastics at the head of this school is preserved, extending from 1212 to 1805, when its last scholasticus, John Julius Palm, died.

In respect to the organization of these schools, a distinction is to be made between the lower, "exterior" school, from which probably grew the public school and the gymnasium; and the higher interior, or "domiciliary" school, which was designed especially for the training of ecclesiastics. The latter was in charge of the "scholasticus," whose duty it

was "to give faithful instruction in the scholastic sciences, and especially in grammar." The lower division was an elementary boys' school (trivial school) under the direction of the "rector scholarum" or "magister scholarum," also known as "ludi magister," who was appointed by the scholasticus and sometimes paid by him. When afterwards the domiciliary school declined and with it the efficiency of the scholasticus as an instructor, he seems to have acted merely as a superintendent of the school and to have been chiefly occupied with the management of the business of the chapter, of which he was usually one of the prelates. The office was well endowed and consequently much sought after, and was sometimes conferred upon persons who were not members of the chapter. Hence by degrees, in later times, the rector scholarum became the only teacher, appeared on festive occasions at the head of the school, and gave instruction in the higher as well as the lower branches. He also had his assistants (called "loca tenentes," "locati," "socii," "collaboratores," or "substituti,") selected by the rector and paid from his own income. The tuition fees were at first very light (at Hamburg 100 pfennings, or 18 cents; at Lübeck 2-4 schillings, or 4-9 cents, annually) and for the poorer classes were diminished, or remitted entirely. These rates were increased with the depreciation in the value of money. Many endowments were made for the benefit of the scholars, poor scholars were provided for by the legate and others, and there was no want of feast days (See Grimm's description of the Gregory Feast, in the "Kind- und Hausmärchen," II., XXXII.) In these schools, instruction was limited almost entirely to the Latin language and religion; in German there seems to have been very little instruction given, and in Greek and Hebrew, none at all. Reading and writing were taught in order to exclude the establishment of other schools, and singing received especial attention on account of its importance in the church service. For a still higher theological education, "lectures" were established and endowed, readers being appointed who read the scriptures and explained the more difficult passages, and by degrees became the exponents of the sciences to the convents and chapters, and these places were often filled by learned men called in from other States. These lectures have continued in Lübeck to the present time and have been transferred for the essential purpose for which they were created, the instruction of the younger theological classes, to the use of the Protestant churches. After the establishment of the university at Mentz, the domiciliary school at Frankfort declined, the inferior school alone remaining.

Another institution that has survived till the present time which originated in connection with the Hamburg church and school, is the "Fraternity of Poor Scholars," founded about 1285 for the decent burial of poor or stranger priests, clerks, and students.

At length, in the 14th century, arose what we are used to call the revival of classical study. Commencing in Italy, Rudolf Agricola was the first mentioned representative of the new tendency in Germany, though Erasmus attained the greatest renown in his defense of humanism. The youth applied themselves with enthusiasm to the study of the classics

the opposition of the Dominicans was ineffectual; and the followers of the new movement, usually called "poetæ," turned their energies to the instruction of youth. In 1496 there came a "poet" to Frankfort and offered for the purpose of supporting himself, to "give poetical readings to the young for a quarter of a year," for which he received two guilders monthly.

Thus commenced the radical movement in the city of Frankfort; but it was not merely this reaction against scholasticism, which wrought upon the school system. As the condition of the citizens had gradually improved, the desire for education also increased and the existing schools gave the less satisfaction. As they could not gain control over the church schools, the magistrates and citizens sought to establish others, which the clergy, on the other hand, used all their power to prevent, or at least to bring under their own supervision and confine to as low a grade as possible. In 1253 the city of Lübeck obtained permission from the pope to establish a special city school, and also Hamburg in 1281. These schools gave rise to frequent and bitter quarrels between the clergy and the magistrates, the chapters refused to recognize the grants until the schools were made subordinate and tributary to the scholasticus, and the contention did not cease between the parties till the time of the Reformation. This whole movement, indeed, in favor of popular education appears evidently not to have arisen in the church, but without and in opposition to the influence of the church. Thus in Hamburg, early in the 15th century, the scholasticus, ever anxiously solicitous about privileges and incomes, made complaint to the pope of the unlicensed schools that were drawing away scholars from the two privileged schools, which were therefore commanded to be closed under penalty of excommunication. A similar complaint was made in 1472, but the like commands met with much less ready obedience. The city council sustained the secular schools and after repeated appeals which were uniformly decided in favor of the scholasticus, the council finally relieved itself from the ban of excommunication by an agreement of indemnification to the scholasticus and that there should be but a single school of forty scholars for instruction in German, reading and writing. In Lübeck too, the four German reading, and writing schools were founded only after long contention between the chapter and the council; and in Bremen, excommunication alone forced the council to yield to the terms of the church.

With the Reformation, which was introduced into Bremen in 1522, Hamburg in 1529, and Lübeck in 1531, advancement was more rapid. In Hamburg a new classical school was opened by Bugenhagen in 1529 in the convent of St. John, hence known as the Johanneum, and the Nicolai school of 1281 was changed into an evangelical public school. At Lübeck, the chapter schools were closed, and a new classical school, the Catharineum, was founded by Bugenhagen in 1531. Reading and writing schools were also multiplied, and even female schools were contemplated but do not appear to have gone into operation. At Frankfort, in 1521, a number of prominent families wishing to establish a new school,

applied to Erasmus who recommended to them his scholar, William Nesen, who founded there the "Junker school"—the miserable commencement of the Frankfort gymnasium. It was at first but a private school and though there was no want of scholars, yet for want of sufficient support from the city council, Nesen left at the end of three years, and was succeeded by Ludwig Carinus, who likewise remained scarcely three years. Jacob Molyer followed, better known as Micyllus, and one of the most able educationists of the 16th century. He remained until 1532 under the same unfavorable circumstances as his predecessors, with a salary of about fifty florins (\$21.). In 1537 he was recalled from his position as professor at Heidelberg, through the influence of Melancthon and with the determination to improve the condition of the school. His salary was raised to 150 florins, and a school ordinance was passed whose peculiar merit lay in an unusual regard for the practical objects of instruction. The school was divided into five classes and the assistant teachers were paid by a tuition fee of four florins annually. This institution was long called the "Barefooted school," from being held in the convent previously occupied by the order of barefooted friars.

While the cathedral schools at Frankfort were thus being supplanted, other schools also arose as the commencement of the common school—the German reading and writing schools, called also briefly "German schools." The first teacher of whom mention is made, was Jacob Medebach, in 1543, a cobbler; but by the end of the century there were at least eighteen such. Small claim, indeed, was made upon their learning; knowledge of the catechism, ability to read and write, and the capacity to maintain discipline by means of the rod, were qualifications amply sufficient. The authorities troubled themselves little about these schools, so that various abuses arose, and among others that the children were transferred from one school to another for the purpose of defrauding the teacher. Hence, in 1591, the teachers met and agreed upon certain general regulations respecting the time of admission to school, and the amount of tuition fee (12–18 schillings quarterly=15–21 cents, exclusive of arithmetic,) and requiring each scholar on admission to produce the receipt of his former teacher. The city council also in the same year required the visitation of the schools by the preachers, regulated begging by poor scholars, and limited the tuition fees to one florin a year, or to twice that amount for wealthier children. Thus the school teachers were formed into a "guild," and were recognized as such; they had an elected head and a common treasury, they met quarterly in convention, and at a later period had also a widows' fund. But these "quarter" schools also were not without their quarrels, which arose principally from the religious differences between the Lutherans and Calvinists, and still another difficulty arose from the unlicensed or "hedge" schools, which was finally removed for a time by a city regulation that no school could be opened without permission from the authorities.

In this form the Frankfort school system remained, in all essential points unchanged till the re-organization of Frankfort as a free city in 1815. During this time the number of teachers varied from sixteen to thirty-two, each school being limited to a single assistant and hence restricted to a moderate number of scholars. The schools were sometimes under the charge of female teachers, which is explained by the fact that the school privilege was a real right, transferable by inheritance or sale. The course of study was probably extended so as even sometimes to include French, but there were special charges for instruction in all branches beyond the elementary ones of reading and writing.

That this arrangement, as carried out, was by no means satisfactory, is evident from a reform document by one of the teachers, J. M. Schirmer, in the middle of the 18th century. He proposed that the number of schools should be limited, the teachers paid by the State, a revival of the regulation requiring visitation of the schools, and that all teacherships should be made hereditary. He was especially opposed to the numerous "hedge" schools which had again arisen, kept by "school disturbers" and various kinds of strollers, "lackeys, tailors, shoemakers, stocking weavers, wig makers, journeymen printers, invalid soldiers, and sewing and knitting women," who managed to gain a subsistence by means of instruction in German and the catechism. But his criticism met with slight response and no attempt at a re-organization was made until within the present century, when a great improvement in the schools was inaugurated through the active exertions of the mayor Baron von Gunderode and Dr. Hufnagel, Sr., by whom the new "Model School" was founded in 1803. In 1804 was founded the Jewish school, the "Philanthropin;" in 1813, the "White Lady's School," the first purely State common school; in 1816, the German Reformed Free School, and the female school of the Ladies' Society. During these changes the quarter schools had gradually diminished in number, and in 1824 they were wholly displaced by the formation of four evangelical common schools, to which were added in 1857 a higher burgher school.

Of the early Catholic schools at Frankfort, the cathedral school of St. Bartholomew was the only one which survived the Reformation, which was only for boys and under the charge of the rector and a single assistant. As the number of Catholics afterwards increased, some English nuns from Fulda were permitted to commence a female school, and still later the Rosenberg nuns established a similar school for pupils from the wealthier families. In 1783 a real school was added to the trivial school of the cathedral, and in 1790 the Catholic gymnasium, the "Fridericianum," was founded. In 1808 the school of the Rosenberg nuns was changed to a common school, and the hitherto public school of the English nuns, to a female high school. In 1812 the cathedral gymnasium and the Fridericianum were formed into one grand-ducal gymnasium common to all religions, leaving nothing but the real division as a special Catholic real school, which was also dissolved two years

THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES, PAST AND PRESENT.*

BY DR. DÖLLINGER, RECTOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MUNICH.

SUMMONED to address this assembly in the presence of two of the Royal Princes, the hereditary patrons of this University, of the honored circle of my colleagues and of the younger members of our academic fellowship; the well-being and progress of the society to which we belong, and the common interests which bind us together as scholars, will furnish the theme of my discourse. Taking our standpoint high enough to embrace in our survey nations and centuries, we can get a clear perception of the conditions on which the prosperity of our Universities or High Schools, as they were very commonly designated, depend, and of the laws which must in future govern the fate of similar institutions.

Universities, without being such in the modern sense of the word, originated as free associations of respected teachers and eager scholars. The oldest was the Medical School at Salerno, which had a reputation in the eleventh century. Next, we find the Law School at Bologna flourishing since the middle of the twelfth century; and later, in the thirteenth century, that of Padua, begun by emigrants from the former. Naples sprung at once into a systematic, princely establishment, owing to a monopoly, by which the Sicilian youth were forbidden to study at foreign schools. The Italian law schools, particularly that of Bologna, were composed of several so-called Universities, that is, of several corporations or schools which were independent of each other and formed of the different nationalities, but mainly of jurists and the faculty of arts.

The study of Roman and Canon Law greatly predominated at all the High Schools in Italy, with the sole exception of Salerno, and even here study was not pursued in a scientific method and for scientific purposes, but solely for material ends—for success in civil life and in clerical preferments and offices. Through its jurisprudence, both civil and ecclesiastical, Italy at that time ruled the world and held every government of Europe subject and tributary.

* *The Universities, Past and Present*; an Address by Dr. John Jos. Ign. v. Döllinger, on his inauguration as Rector, Dec. 22, 1866. Munich, 1867.

At these Italian schools neither theological or philosophical or scientific studies flourished until a much later period. Dante for this reason complained that no one would study any thing but decretals. How full of gloom and despair sound the words of Roger Bacon, the only man of his time of universal knowledge: "The jurisprudence of the Italians has for forty years destroyed the study of wisdom, (meaning, philosophy, natural science, and theology,) aye, even the Church and all the Kingdoms." His ideal was a science, conducted and controlled by the Church, nursed by the clergy, combining the spiritual and human, the visible and the invisible. But for this study he could not find men, as the clergy studied jurisprudence only as a means of advancement to high honors and rich livings. At this time (1262) there were in Bologna 20,000 students, and among them thousands of matured minds thoroughly versed and trained in jurisprudence—a legion, all contending under one flag, large and strong enough to conquer and rule the whole world!

It was totally different on this side of the Alps. From the beginning of the thirteenth century the High School of Paris, first as a "*Studium Generale*," then as "*Universitas*," from the first protected by Popes and Kings, grew to be the most influential and honored corporation. Resting on the permanent foundation of a large body of teachers, it was still poor, not even owning a building, which was gradually supplied by the several colleges which were established to provide common lodgings for teachers and scholars, and came at last to absorb the whole University in themselves. Here philosophical and theological studies gained the ascendancy and threw all others into the shade—the teaching of jurisprudence being for a long time interdicted by the Pope. Nearly half the city was turned into a school, making Paris resemble the Oxford of our day with its numerous buildings devoted to the residence of an academic population, while, according to the statement of a Venetian ambassador near the end of the sixteenth century, even after the distractions of the religious wars, it numbered over thirty thousand (30,000;) more than all the Universities of Italy put together.

But still Paris was not a University in the modern, German sense of the word. Throughout the middle ages it wanted a complete juridical faculty; but even with this defect it excelled all others in France, none of them rising above the subordinate character of special schools; as of jurisprudence at Orleans, Bourges, Cahors and Angers; of medicine at Montpellier.

For two centuries Germany does not seem to have conceived the

idea of freeing herself from intellectual dependence upon Italy and France by establishing a High School on her own soil. The German who wished for a higher education was obliged to seek it in Paris, or Padua, or Bologna. The English had met their own wants better; for Oxford and Cambridge, in our own day regarded as the two mental eyes of the kingdom, had a high reputation even in the middle of the thirteenth century. No German Elector or Emperor stepped forward to aid the undertaking—no voice from the people called for it. The century after the death of Frederick the Second, with its civil wars and contentions for the throne, was certainly not favorable to the works of peace. The spirit of dissension and isolation was already too potent in Germany. As there was no longer a united German Church, so there was no aspiration for a central seat of science. Men were satisfied with the belief that different gifts were distributed to different nations; as the *Imperium* to Germany; the *Studium Generale* to France; and the *Sacerdotium* to Italy. No one appears to have conceived the idea that Germany, to preserve her *Imperium* and her national unity, needed her own *Studium Generale*. When the Emperor Charles IV, in 1348, established the High School at Prague, after the model of that of Paris, it was not a national desire or demand of the people which brought into life this first-born of German Universities, but because the Emperor desired, in commemoration of his student life in the *rue du fouarre*, to have an institution, similar to the one he there attended, in his own dominion of Bohemia. The University of Prague, too distant from the heart of Germany, and from the beginning divided among the Slavonians and Germans, was soon involved in the storms and vicissitudes of the Hussite controversy and wars. The University of Vienna, founded in 1365, might have proved more beneficial and important for Germany had not the interest in scholasticism begun to fail—the faculty of arts lacked adequate force, while that of law was so poorly equipped that civil law was not taught for a considerable period; even the medical faculty never had a vigorous life; indeed the interest manifested by Germany in the operations and perpetuity of the University, was confined to very narrow limits.

It was a matter of grave importance, whose consequences extend even to our day, that Schools of Law, even though of foreign and Roman Law, introduced from Padua and Bologna, were established in the Universities at the end of the fourteenth and during the fifteenth centuries; because German jurisprudence had not been able to perfect itself into a national system, nor was it, indeed, recog-

nized or represented at the new High Schools. How different would have been the history and condition of Germany, if she had had one or two High Schools in the thirteenth century, when law books, as the Suabian and Saxon Mirrors, were first written, and a more complete and formal statement of existing law was attempted, though without system or any exposition of its meaning. Then we might have had the rudiments, at least, of a German jurisprudence, and the Roman Law, little inviting in its unseemly shape, as a gloss of the Pandects and Institutes, would not have gained or so long retained the sole supremacy of the Schools. How different would the penal and civil law have been, and no less the Church and politics! You need but recall the common practice of torture, justified by appeal to the Roman Law and the Italian Jurists; of the Roman theory of the absolute law-making power of monarchs; of the principle that every petty sovereign was to be considered a Roman Emperor in his own dominions; of the exemptions enjoyed by the Roman exchequer; of the terrible doctrine of high treason against the sovereign, and the draconic penalties for such crime; and finally of the legal axiom that the sovereign was not bound by the law.

German law did not recognize such principles, but proclaimed the very opposite. But such were the fruits, in Germany, of Roman jurisprudence, as interpreted by the Italians of the later middle ages—I say “later” middle ages, because it was at that time that the study of law was transplanted to the German High Schools, after the older and better teaching of Bologna, whose decline commenced with Bartolus and Baldus, had become extinct.

The Universities in Germany remained for a long time only adventitious institutions, transplanted from foreign countries, without assimilating, cultivating or controlling the mind of the nation. Theologians and canonists alone found an opportunity, at the great ecclesiastical councils of the fifteenth century, to vindicate themselves and their learning. It is true that the gathering of the most learned man from the principal countries of Europe, which had been brought about by the councils, and the consequent interchange of ideas, should have exercised a healthy influence on the schools. But owing to the preponderance of theological studies on this side of the Alps, the well-being of the High Schools depended on the condition of the Church; and as that was distracted and confused, the defeat of the Councils, which were at last abandoned by the princes, was at the same time a defeat of the High Schools, and was felt to be such by their members. With few exceptions, the names of the

German professors of the fifteenth century are forgotten; they left no works, or even the memory of any undertaking worthy to be preserved by the nation. The only German philosopher, Nicholas von Cusa, and the only professor of civil law, Peter of Andlaw, together with the historians of that period, had no connection with the Universities. Geiler of Kaisersberg and Sebastian Brand were connected only for a short time with these schools of higher learning.

From the end of the fourteenth century, however, there arose in Germany a spirit of emulation in the establishment of Universities. During the fifteenth century, nine Universities were added to the five then existing, although with limited means and slender endowments. Even some cities, like Erfurt, wished to have their own Universities. Not one of the fourteen High Schools was able to meet the moderate expectations which the low standard of science at that time might demand. At first, Tübingen and Leipsic had only two professors of medicine, in Tübingen one receiving a salary of one hundred florins and the other sixty. The founding of Universities at that time was promoted by the facility with which the prebendaries of the numerous and richly-endowed ecclesiastical chapters were conferred upon professors. As most of these Faculties were formed after the model of Prague, which was itself modeled from Paris, theology, in the scholastic systems, prevailed; and the Faculty of Arts, bound, likewise, to scholastic forms, was commonly under the direction of the theologians; since an ecclesiastical dignitary usually presided as Chancellor. It is true that the High Schools were never regarded as purely ecclesiastical institutions, for the graduates were allowed to teach whatever and wherever they chose, without the permission of the State. These corporations were republics within the State. As libraries and scientific collections existed only on the smallest scale, the migration of a whole University, in consequence of war, or pestilence, or internal dissensions, was as easy as it was common.

A passing remark seems to be in place here.

How the characters, and through it, the natural development of the three great nations of Europe is reflected in the history of the Universities! France, for centuries advancing steadily and continually to an ever-narrower centralization, a people of thirty-six millions of souls, has only one city where an educated Frenchman would wish to live—a city which is the all-absorbing centre of social and political action—France has had only one University, and that in this very city. All others were only special schools. France,

after the Revolution, which could not tolerate the independence of any corporation, either literary or political, following her natural instinct, destroyed her ancient University and established in its place a complex system of school administration for the whole country, which, powerless in itself, was entirely in the hands of the State. The French University has, at present, nothing in common with the German and English but the name.

England, on the contrary, through all her history, pursuing the twofold aim of practical efficiency and political liberty, and opposed to all centralization, had from the beginning two High Schools, two learned corporations, which have preserved their republican independence to this day. One alone, perhaps, would have been too exclusive and enjoyed too great a monopoly, and inclined to rest on her privileges and previously-earned honors; but the two watched and incited each other mutually, each fostering one of the two main tendencies of the English mind—namely, Oxford the ecclesiastical and its associated discipline, and Cambridge the mathematical and more practical branches.

In Germany, finally, towards the end of the Middle Ages, where the progress of decentralization overwhelmed or made subservient all other considerations and gradually undermined the great centralizing institutions—the Empire and the Church—many Universities sprung up, too often the sickly and dwarfed children of such a mother. Then, even a city of the second or third class, or a little territory smaller than an English county, wished to possess its own University, like a duodecimo pocket edition of a High School, for private use. Thus it naturally came to pass that in 1806, Erfurt and Duisberg had only twenty-one students each, Erfurt having twice as many professors as scholars.

With the sixteenth century there began a new order of things, and the German Universities rose to unprecedented power and importance. The Humanists or philologists and the teachers of classical studies gained a position in the Universities, and, where they were not overpowered in the contest which ensued with the upholders of scholasticism, they of necessity broke down the defenses behind which the Faculty of Arts in philosophy and grammar, had concealed their scholastic barrenness of thought and feeble helplessness. While these little wars were waged with different consequences in each separate University, there arose in the youngest of them all that world-renowned religious struggle, which, as a devastating storm, aroused the very heart of Germany from the Alps to the Baltic as no commotion, before or since, has ever done, and

finally for centuries divided the country into two nearly equal portions. One of the results of this national convulsion was the dismemberment and final remodeling of the German Universities. They were the armories where the weapons of the contest were forged, and often the battle-fields where doctrines and dogmas contended for victory. As for a long time in the whole of Germany theological questions and ecclesiastical interests took precedence of all others, so the prosperity or downfall of the High Schools depended now, more than ever, on the authority of the theological faculties. But this authority and preëminence was dearly bought. When the High Schools became for the first time in Germany, "*instrumenta dominationis*," the princes at once assumed the prerogative of nominating or displacing at pleasure, first the professors of theology, and afterwards all the others; thus the religious system of a whole country was changed by the removal or instalment of three or four professors, and the practice and doctrine was settled that the sovereign decides the religion of the people. Reformations and counter-reformations followed, and to show here what became of the German Empire, of the liberty of the nation, of the privileges of the nobility, on Catholic as well as Protestant sides, through the united agency of these two new and powerful elements, Roman law and the spiritual authority of sovereigns—to portray this would be most unpleasant and is happily not necessary.

Where the Reformation had conquered, new High Schools quickly sprung up, as at Marburg, Jena, Koenigsberg, Helmstädt, and Altdorf—hotbeds of Protestant theology, and of Roman law, so favorable to absolutism. So we are told of Helmstädt, that the Estates used to regard and hate the ducal University as a corporation subsidized to defend the princely prerogatives. As the Church and State were united in the person of the sovereign, the politico-judicial character of a High School did not interfere with its ecclesiastical character, for we read in the Wittenberg Statutes of 1595 that "the Faculty of Philosophy must be a part of the Church." Until the eighteenth century, disputations were held, and degrees in all branches were conferred in the Church, and all Professors and Doctors took the oath on the Sacred Book.

Germany may well rejoice that her High Schools did not perish in the seventeenth century, that gloomiest period of her history, and that they survived the Thirty Years' War.

The general condition, however, of the Universities was so unsatisfactory that many Germans, especially in the early part of the century, preferred to seek a better education in foreign countries,

and also to escape the insufferable tyranny of the lawless students, known as "*pennalism*."* The law students went to France; the medical students to Italy; for through its schools at Padua and Pisa, and through men like Telesio, Baglivi, Fabrizio, Cardano, and Galileo, Italy had once, if only for a short time, taught all Europe in the departments of philosophy and science.

It was at the close of the great war, in the year of the peace of Westphalia, that Valentin Andreä wrote these sad words, which sound like an epitaph on the German spirit: "I have long since learned from my own experience that there is nothing more profane than our religion, nothing more baneful than our medicine, and nothing more unjust than our law."

Nor does the latter part of the century present a more pleasing aspect. When Germany was humbled and her political importance gone, when foreign rapacity and insolence tore one member after another from the paralyzed body of the Empire, when the Palatinate was ravaged and Heidelberg destroyed, how quiet were the Universities! they gave no evidence of patriotic indignation, nor did they give utterance to any words that might arouse the nation from her lethargy; professors and students alike seemed prepared to accept with stolid indifference whatever might come to pass. The Catholic institutions, none of them deserving the title of University, employing only a few professors, vegetated rather than lived. The Protestant faculties were absorbed by theological questions and discussions, and their history is almost exclusively a history of war between Lutheran orthodoxy on one side and Calvinism, Syncretism and Pietism on the other. Helmstädt alone was an exception. There the humanistic studies were still pursued; there Conring worked, a man of varied and profound attainments for his time, professor of medicine, and at the same time prominent as a jurist, historian, and theologian, and by his application of the historical method to German law and political economy, as a prophet and forerunner of a scientific course to which the German High Schools of a later date owe their glorious successes.

As late as the end of the seventeenth century, the lectures of all the faculties were delivered in Latin, the German language being almost proscribed in the lecture-rooms, notwithstanding that Leibnitz had recently declared that it was better adapted than any other to be the language of philosophy and science. All this was the consequence of that long deliberation of Germany before founding an University, and also because our professors imported juris-

* See Raumer's *German Universities*, in *Barnard's Am. Journal of Ed.*, vol. vii. p. 47.

prudence, philosophy and physical science from Italy; what they had learned there in Latin they could and would impart at home only in the same language. Finally, about the same time, Thomasius in Halle and Buddeus in Jena began to read lectures in German. But how long it was before the German language prevailed every where, and with what tenacity did our professors cling to Latin lectures! To the mediocre and shallow teacher who had nothing new to communicate, there was nothing more desirable than the use of a foreign tongue. Their obscure conceptions and scanty knowledge were well concealed, and even commonplaces, insufferable in German, were even stately in their Latin periods.

But every one thinks in his mother tongue, and a foreign and dead language is always strange to our inmost thoughts and sentiments; so a double labor was imposed upon the student, because he was obliged to translate the Latin sentence mentally into German, and then to adjust and assimilate this translation in his mind; in which he of necessity often failed, because the Latin and German terms are seldom even synonymous, the most expressive German word being, in many cases, scarcely a paraphrase of the Latin. With this method and medium of teaching, a system of national instruction was impossible.

Towards the end of the seventeenth and far into the next century, the German Universities were generally but little respected, and the princes themselves were forward to give the example of contempt. No corporate body was ever treated more slightly than were the High Schools at Frankfort by Frederic William I, or those of Halle by his son. They were regarded and treated as useless relics of a past age under whose protection, narrowness of mind, dry pedantry and formal instruction, of no benefit to the avocations of practical life, were fostered. While the nobility showed, in habits and language, an increasing leaning to France, while the Landgrave Ernest of Hesse-Rheinfeld for four years kept up a correspondence with Leibnitz in French, the learned Thomasius was laboring with poor success to establish his mother tongue and to practice an improved style with his pupils at Halle. "Few," he says, "were able to compose a simple period correctly or write a German letter." Gabriel Wagner, who regarded the exclusive use of a foreign language, especially in philosophical studies, as a most deplorable error, wrote a few years before: "Whoever attempts to establish our mother tongue in the schools is looked upon as mad." It is significant of the decline of the Universities at that period, that our greatest man, Leibnitz, in his designs and propositions for the ele-

vation of science, ignored the Universities entirely, as if they had sunk too low to be reformed.

Halle maintained her position, as first among the German High Schools, from 1690 until about 1730. It had a good number of professors in each faculty whose names are connected with real progress in their special branches; metaphysics, theology, philosophy, and jurisprudence, which at other schools were suppressed or neglected, found an asylum here, and the institutions of Franke attracted the attention of all Germany. The decline of this renown and influence began with the restriction of this liberty of instruction, when the philosopher Wolf was expelled and Spangenburg exiled.

About 1734 Göttingen arose, under British protection; intelligently conducted, and liberally endowed by the State, it helped to work a reform in German science. The names of Mosheim, Böhmer, Gessner, Haller, and at a later period, of Pütter, Schlözer, Michaelis, Heyne, Lichtenberg; the liberty of unlicensed teaching, the absence of censorship, the number of books of instruction, written by the professors and employed at other institutions, placed Göttingen for about a half century at the head of the German Universities.

In regard to history, the influence of Göttingen upon the German mind was most beneficial. Although lectures on history had been read in the Universities of North Germany, at least, since the middle of the sixteenth century, they were little more than mere narratives which could be made convenient to certain ends, the professors being well named *professores historiarum*. Profane history was made subservient to Church history, and this in turn was made to serve the ends of polemical theology, which at that time distracted the public attention. German and Italian history, so far as questions of international law were concerned, was the field from which the jurists of that day drew their examples. Before the commencement of the nineteenth century, Germany did not possess one work on Universal History, of even moderate merit, (the first was by Cellarius of Halle.) and before the works of Koehler and Struve were published there was not a readable work on German History. If we look back from a work like Spittler's History of European States, published in 1794, to the productions of 1750, we can measure the gigantic progress of forty years, and our hopes for the future of the German High Schools as well as of German literature are increased.

Very unexpectedly, in the latter part of the century, Königsberg, the most remote of all the Universities, drew the eyes of all Germany upon itself through the reputation of one man, Emanuel

Kant, the great reformer of philosophy; and soon there was not one University without a disciple of the philosopher of Königsberg, or a follower of his system of teaching. Soon after Kant, Jena, for a long time known only as a school of able theologians, became, through Fichte and Schelling, the seat of that philosophical discussion which for a long time engaged a large proportion of German intellect and threw all other studies into the background. Natural philosophy, an offshoot of Schelling's former system, in other words the premature attempt to construe nature and her laws from the very insufficient knowledge of physics, which at that time was undergoing a change, in the same way as Fichte had construed history, threatened to endanger purely experimental researches, because it found much favor at the Universities. But the startling discoveries of foreign scientists exposed the hollowness of such attempts and exploded that method of interpreting nature. This proves that science carries with her the remedies for her own diseases if time only be given.

The eighteenth century came to an end and the new one was ushered in with political storms, and territorial changes, in which several German Universities disappeared. Helmstädt, Rueteln, Frankfort on the Oder, Duisberg, Wittenberg, Erfurt, Mayence, Bamberg, Cologne, Paderborn, Münster, Dillingen, Salzburg—all died, either in the natural course of events or by arbitrary suppression, or being merged with some other High School. In fact none of the institutions were missed or their loss deplored. Many of them for a long time had led but a sorrowful existence, with only two or three faculties and without a single professor of national eminence. Some of them had been content with such modest retirement that their existence was scarcely known outside of the city in which they were located. Only the fall of the University of Mayence, then recently reformed and well appointed by the Elector, and which in 1787 numbered six hundred students, was felt as a serious loss.

But now an institution was founded, which, even in its infancy, was destined to excel all others and realize the highest ideal of a German University. Immediately after the peace of Tilsit, when Prussia, shorn of half her people and resources, was reduced to a third-rate power, the king and his advisers determined upon the establishment of a High School at the capital of the nation in connection with the Royal Academy of Sciences. They believed that the regeneration of the nation must begin with the spiritual development of the people. The new University was to be started upon

principles radically different from all the traditions of University organization ; even the separation of the faculties was to cease. It is remarkable that Fichte, thoroughly German as he was, as if poisoned by the French revolutionary ideas, could advise the entire abolition of the old and the creation of an institution, which, originated from the platonic idea of a State governed by philosophers, would have suppressed all individuality of teachers and scholars, undermined their liberty, and established a kind of literary monachism with despotic forms.

But happily William von Humboldt, a live statesman and philosopher, seized the opportunity and impressed upon the new institution the stamp of his large and varied mind. That a purely Prussian High School was not projected is evident from the fact that if all the invitations sent abroad had been accepted, two-thirds of the professors would have been foreigners. For the first time in Germany since the Reformation, a High School was started without any territorial circumscription, and not in the interest of any doctrine or creed, but solely for the propagation of human culture and rational science. Each one of the prominent men who was first connected with the institution, Wolf, Fichte, Savigny, Schleiermacher, Reil, represented himself alone and the principles and doctrine which he had established and cultivated. What a growth followed ! The University of Berlin had in 1815, five years after its foundation, 56 teachers, while in 1860 we find 173,—97 professors, 66 private teachers, and 7 lecturers—so that the number of teachers was tripled in the space of forty-five years. In the year 1835 they had 2,000 students ; to-day (1866) they number 2,180.

What formerly had been deemed impossible, in other, non-German States, was now realized in Prussia. The great superiority of the High School at the capital, liberally fostered by the government, so far from suppressing or exhausting those in other parts of the country, exercised a beneficent and invigorating influence over them. Halle received a new impulse and soon became a favorite theological school, which at one time numbered eight hundred students. His Faculty, the truest exponent of the then prevailing Protestant doctrines, attracts to this day more students than any other German school. Breslau, since her union with Frankfort, on the Oder, although not famous for any brilliant professors, maintained her reputation as a first class institution which produced many well educated men. Bonn on the Rhine, founded in 1818, attained, through her favorable location, her excellent philological faculty, and the influence of a star like Niebuhr a renown which she still retains.

You will hardly expect me to dwell here upon the advantages of our own University, now in the fortieth year of its existence. Thanks to the care of the two kings whose names it bears, Ludwig and Maximilian II, the University of Munich has in this brief period grown to a majestic tree, whose roots have sunk deep into our national soil, and whose richly laden branches have extended to all parts of the heavens. May it be strong enough to weather any coming storm !

The long-desired reorganization of the University of Vienna has at last been commenced by her emancipation from governmental control and the liberal extension of her course of study. About the middle of the last century, Vienna enjoyed, through her excellent school of medicine, an unprecedented reputation. Van Swieten, DeHaen, Stoll, all from abroad, were names of the highest reputation. But their successors were not their equals, and the other faculties were inefficient, the influence of the Church, the censorship, the many governmental restrictions—all conspired to lower the character of the University, and in the beginning of this century reduced it, with the other Austrian High Schools, to a very deplorable condition. To speak in the language of a professor of Vienna, "the Universities had become professional schools for officials, lawyers, and physicians—science found but little support or encouragement from their teachings." Under the wise administration of Count Thun, the work of reconstruction has on the whole been well accomplished; able professors have been invited from abroad, Munich furnishing her quota, and as the preparatory schools throughout the Austrian Empire, which had sunk to a very low position, have been essentially improved of late, we may hope that the University of Vienna will now be the most important support of the scientific life of the Empire; and certainly these efforts will be followed by the most brilliant consequences, if political distractions and the consciousness of standing upon trembling ground does not paralyze the minds of men.

A retrospective glance over the whole field will show the progress we have made and the advantages gained in the academical world of Germany. In the seventeenth and even in the beginning of the eighteenth century, our Universities failed to meet the wants of the nation, consequently their importance and influence was but limited, and there were many who regarded them only as necessary evils. The several systems had but little connection with each other, every thing moved in the old scholastic forms and all were satisfied with a mere professional training. Science was regarded only as the

accumulation of isolated facts of many facts, and individual scholars were measured by this standard. No essays were written to be read beyond the narrow academic circle of professors and scholars. Nearly every University was the scene of useless contention between the adherents of different doctrines. Discord among the professors became proverbial. To mention but one faculty; of jurisprudence, Niebuhr said that it was only through the elevation of philology that it was rescued from a barbarism of nearly two centuries. A closer examination might lead us to apply the same remark to philosophy, medicine, and the physical sciences.

When we consider the present honorable position of the German Universities, that in them have originated nearly all higher and better currents of German thought, and that this change has taken place and this immense productiveness in all branches of science has been developed in the brief period of fifty years—we must confess that a parallel can hardly be found in the whole course of literary history.

All great and lasting achievements in science have been accomplished through the fusion of different branches and studies in single individuals. I need mention three who are representatives of different periods—Scaliger, Leibnitz, Haller. The last named comprehended the knowledge of his time like a second Aristotle. Leibnitz, of an unequalled multitudinous knowledge, was the first in whom the spirit of antiquity was blended with the accomplishments of modern times, and who displayed a singular boldness and originality in investigation. Scaliger achieved his reputation combining mastery of theology and history of the realistic and sacred and classical studies. In our day, theology and jurisprudence have been enlightened and enlarged through their connection with philology and history, while medicine, through the assistance of all branches of physical knowledge, has become a science which comprehends the whole man and all organic and inorganic matter surrounding him. Thus all these sciences have progressed in richness of material and thoroughness of investigation, consequently in truthfulness, and like torches illumine, with a purer and broader light, the intellectual world. It is now easy to discover and refute fallacies and to cast out useless material. But as the progress of each science is connected by a thousand links with the development and growth of all others, it follows that if one member decays, each and every other branch has to suffer. Strange as it may seem; if natural philosophy or chemistry, for instance, were to decline, theology and jurisprudence would thereby be affected and suffer. The same is

true of popular life, which would be materially damaged if the vitality of any one branch of science was reduced.

Thus the different faculties and sciences of a University exercise a mutual surveillance, and supplement each other. This will inevitably happen if the individual teachers do not overlook the importance of other branches of science than the one in which they are engaged; then they can never forget that it is the interest of every science to enlist all others in her behalf, and that each should be open to the influence of others, as members of one great organism. The teacher should take especial care to demonstrate the connection of each system with the whole, as also the relation of each part with the other, and of every part with what precedes and follows, so that the student may find his way from any point of his studies to all its branches. He may easily effect this by progressing not only systematically but historically, by illustrating to his hearers the various changes which his subject has undergone up to its present state.

That moral tie which unites the members of an University in one harmoniously-working whole, consists not only in identity of pursuit and interests, but in the mutual exchange of ideas and the stimulus to active exertion which the individual receives from the whole. Not only the presence of the living, but also the memory of the dead—their learning, their virtues, and their works—excites this spirit of emulation. A community like an University lives upon the past—fortunate if its errors and fallacies, not yet thoroughly sifted and overcome, do not constantly embarrass and influence the present.

I do not hesitate to mention, among the many advantages of university life, that modesty which each must show in estimating his own proficiency. The individual scholar, studying in quiet seclusion what his inclination alone fancies, is apt to overestimate his speciality; he will be tempted to convert the secondary into the principal, and to transplant his special branch into the centre of universal knowledge. This will, in the first place, cause him to fail to construe and enlarge his science out of the idea of the whole, and through his mistaken over-estimation he will be easily led to grave errors relative to the limits and productiveness of his speciality; and thus, secondly, he will work himself more and more into his peculiar views and think himself unappreciated. Our Universities are excellent preventives of such evils. They place or force each individual into his right position, and remind him constantly that he is but a single link of a vast chain—that he has mastered

at best but a fraction of the truth and is able to contribute but a small pittance towards the solution of the great problems of science.

Here we may see the cause that Germany, the last among the civilized nations to adopt the institution of Universities, and for a long time with but indifferent success, is at present the very home of the High Schools, and has cultivated them with such scientific thoroughness and ability as not only to excel all other nations, but may in truth be said to be the sole proprietress of the genuine institution.

In France, which in the middle ages possessed the most perfect University, the very pattern of all others, the institution is now extinct; and it has been truly said that if Napoleon I had not designated his great administrative instruction-machine an Imperial University, the very name would long ago have been forgotten in a country where now only special schools exist. The eight schools, or faculties, for law, five for medicine, eight of the exact sciences, (mathematics and natural history,) six of *lettres*, (philosophy, philology, history, and literature,) each independent and without a connecting tie, except in Paris and Strasbourg, constitute the successors to the old University of Paris. The principal French High School is now the College de France, founded by Francis I, which had in 1789 nineteen professorships for languages, literature, mathematics, natural philosophy, medicine, law, (both civil and canon,) and a combined professorship of history and moral philosophy. The number of professorships since the Revolution has been increased to thirty, and it is noteworthy that among the new ones is one for Slavonic languages and literature, which is seldom found in German High Schools, though it should not be wanting in any first class University. From what we see, we may safely conclude that in the composition and organization of the French Universities, much more is due to accident and regard to persons than to any settled system.

On the other hand, the two English Universities have wholly maintained their ancient character, as great and influential corporations, governing themselves in entire independence. But they differ from what we call an University—are nothing but a higher college where theology and canon law is taught, besides the usual branches. Nor could the addition made a few years ago, of a few new professorships, especially of history, change materially their hereditary character. The method of study is entirely different from that pursued in Germany. Eight or ten lectures during the year, calculated for the immediate satisfaction of a mixed audience,

are considered quite enough to discharge the obligations of a professor. The professors do not, as in Germany, place themselves in the centre of their subject, but they are satisfied to get and give a bird's-eye view, or to throw light only on certain points.

The English Universities are not intended to train officials or produce lawyers, or naturalists, or physicians, but they aim, through classical and mathematical studies, with logic and philosophy, to furnish, to the State and society, well educated gentlemen, and to the Church, a clergy with a complete secular education. In saying this it is not my intention to depreciate the English Universities; on the contrary I consider them to be excellent of their kind, and fully competent to meet the expectations of the nation. I mean only that they differ entirely from our German institutions of the same name, and partake more of the character of the past than the present, and that our German Universities come nearer to the modern ideal and present intellectual wants than the English do. I will not conceal the fact that the Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, the counterparts of the ancient German *bursae*,* as I stood among them, excited in me feelings of envy and longing. I could perceive in them that instruction became at once matter of thought and feeling, and that the aim of the University should be, not only to impart knowledge but to elevate and refine the soul. I have often asked myself why we Germans renounce entirely an adjunct of the University recommended alike by theory and experience, which would relieve thousands of parents of painful anxiety and sorrow, save many young men from ruin, and preserve others from life-long repentance. Thanks to our king, Maximilian II, whose forethought and beneficence perceived and supplied this want and set the example of what should be done in this direction.

Beneath the English, are the Universities of Scotland, at Edinburgh, St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen. And, in a country, where by the admission of their own professors, it is considered ridiculous to study a science for its own sake, and not for its practical applications, how could their condition be different from that described by Professor Blackie, of Edinburgh: "Our scholarship is at the present moment of the lowest possible grade," and the scientific study of history, for instance, is hardly known at the Scotch Universities. Though Edinburgh has a medical school, favorably known throughout English dominions, nearly all Scotsmen who have attained a name in literature have no professional connection with their schools.

* Raumer, German Universities—Barnard's Edition, p. 32, 160.

Nor do we find Universities, in the true sense of the term, in the United States. The institutions bearing that name, and having the right to create doctors of law and theology, stand about half way between the German colleges or gymnasiums and the philosophical faculties of a German University. A scientifically-formed jurisprudence is not known either in England or America, and theology is variously shaped by doctrines of the thirty or forty sects whose contributions support the several schools.

The twenty-one Universities of Italy appear on a superficial view to be similar to those of Germany, except that nearly all are deficient in the theological faculty, the Italian clergy being educated exclusively in the diocesan seminaries of the Catholic Church, and are consequently strangers to the sentiments and culture of the educated laity. By comparing the higher schools of America and Italy, we see a strange contrast. In the former country, whose institutions, so to speak, are of yesterday, such high consideration is extended to theology that the colleges appear to have been established principally for its sake, and for the education of Christian ministers; nor are these institutions founded or supported by the States, but by the various religious denominations. In Italy, on the other hand, the home of civilization and of the Universities, the preceptress of all civilized nations, scientific theology is in so low estimation that only at a few Universities is it even nominally represented, and the Italian clergy, the most numerous in all Europe in proportion to the population, are perfectly satisfied with the elementary training of the seminaries, and do not, with few exceptions, feel the need of a higher scientific culture. This has been true for a long time, and if a Noris had not taught for a time during the seventeenth century at Pisa, we should be embarrassed to mention a single truly eminent and thoroughly educated theologian who had any connection with a University. To one who fails to comprehend this condition, and to weigh it fully, the late troubles in Italy, arising principally from the alienation of the middle and higher classes from the clergy, will be quite incomprehensible. Professor Bonghi has recently demonstrated how low the Italian Universities have fallen and how imperatively a reform is demanded, but a long time must elapse before the evils can be corrected, as the main difficulty lies in the miserable condition of the preparatory schools.

The decline of the Universities, with many other things in Spain, is not of recent date. An hundred years ago they were regarded by statesmen and scholars as the principal bulwarks of rotten abuses; wars and revolutions have destroyed their property; their

buildings are in ruins, and their students form a class, as a German eye-witness reports, from which only the lowest officials are selected. The Universities have preserved the old names and forms, but even these are covered with a French gloss, as every thing in Spain must eventually succumb to French institutions and ideas.

History proves that the Slavonic nations were obliged to follow the German model in founding their Universities. At Dorpat, in Russia, there is an University entirely on the German plan; the other six Universities of the Empire are conducted substantially in accordance with our system, and moreover are partly supplied with German professors.

Switzerland presents vividly the contrast between the Latin and the Teutonic races, for while German Switzerland has not less than three High Schools, even Basle maintaining her own with high reputation, the French-Swiss cantons, though not deficient in intellectual abilities, have never made an attempt even to establish one.

Holland has proved her relationship to us by her three High Schools, conducted on the German model, although poorly supplied with professors. Belgium shows her Franco-German mixture in her four Universities, partly on the French and partly on the German plan, but none quite equal to their German prototype.

In the old kingdom of Denmark, the German University at Kiel has attained a much higher reputation than the purely Danish institution at Copenhagen, which we must ascribe mainly to the hindrances which the development of Danish literature meets in the small population of the country. For this reason even Kiel, besides the philologists Rask and Madvig, has not produced in these latter days many famous scholars whose researches and publications are cited as authority in other languages.

The Swedish Universities of Upsala and Lund are organized on an entirely different plan from ours. Some of the peculiar features of the Universities of the Middle Ages are still retained, such as the ancient laws compelling students to belong to some nationality, are still in force. Upsala has now thirteen nationalities, each with its separate house and library. We may see how the Swedish standard of scientific instruction differs from the German by the fact that there are only two professors of jurisprudence and five of medicine at Upsala; but we must not forget that these schools have produced a Linnæus, a Berzelius and a Geijer.

Thus we are led to the conclusion that the Universities with all their advantages, and their deficiencies, partly curable and partly incurable, are the best exponents of German nationality, and are

best suited to satisfy our intellectual necessities. This mixture of liberty and limitation; of corporate restrictions and the individuality of people and teachers; the free interchange of thought, in which the teacher unreservedly imparts his best knowledge and the most precious fruits of his scientific researches, and the scholar receives it with thankful attention; the stimulus to teacher and scholar, these constitute the charms and advantages of academical life, and make the High Schools preëminently German institutions. The German mind, absorbed in teaching and learning, has embodied itself in this form, and German life, wherever it may show itself, will certainly produce something akin to our schools.

Without doubt the Germans possess the broadly human, cosmopolitan element in greater force than any other people. Hence the German feels akin to all the greater nations, and perceives less the repulsive force of a foreign people. While some delight to carry even the unpleasing qualities of their nationality with them wherever they go, like the snail its own shell, the German assimilates readily with whatever people he may come in contact. If we deserve to be reproached for thus allowing ourselves to be easily absorbed by another more energetic nationality, it is just this pliability of the German character, and this ability to assimilate whatever there may be of good in foreign character, which makes us the central nation of humanity. Our colleague Riehl has, in a series of works, exhibited many of our traits, and habits, and peculiarities, provincial and national. It would be the task of a whole life devoted to the subject to draw a comprehensive picture of the nation, and to portray the main features of her life and her productions. The immensity of the task has thus far deterred every one from such an attempt. How rich, for example, is English literature with works on France, Italy, and other nations, but as yet no Englishman has attempted a thorough work on Germany. The few works of this character to be found in French literature show only that a correct conception of German life is still farther from the French mind than from the English.

The Germans, on the other hand, seem to possess the faculty of understanding the spirit of other nations, whether they may have learned of it by personal observation or from foreign literature and history. We might designate this power and willingness to appreciate and adopt each foreign or peculiar excellence, as a higher sense of justice. So far as it shows itself in science and literature, I may call it the historical sense of the Germans, and I may also assert that they possess this intellectual perception in a higher degree than

any other nation. Certainly this strength and inclination to withdraw our judgment from the power of habit, to see through the atmosphere of the present, and above all clouds of prejudice, to appreciate the spirit and inmost life of remote times and foreign nations, is one of the highest and noblest gifts bestowed by God upon humanity. But this is given to those alone who possess unceasing energy, a restless desire to know the truth, who have the courage and endurance to purchase the most precious at the highest price, at the sacrifice of all the other pleasures of life, and who are not content with what has already been found, but who pursue science to her ultimate principles. In the words of Goethe, I might say, the German spirit has more sunlight than others. The Frenchman declares that his country is destined to enlighten the world either as a sun or as a volcano. We will not dispute the great excellences of his nation, and the power she possesses as the mother of a great literature. The influence of France upon the world is direct and immediate, while ours is indirect. France, through her language, is, so to speak, omnipresent; and it is her province to coin the gold raised by the German mind from the deep shafts of science, and to bring it into circulation. The German language, on account of the many difficulties it presents to the student, will never become as universal as the French and English, and our writers have not yet reached that lucid utterance, or that felicity and precision of form which commend the choice productions of our neighbors to so large a circle of readers and to the taste of every nation.

Not only in Frenchmen must we acknowledge this superiority in style and description which pleases every refined taste and approaches the classic models of antiquity—Macaulay, Geijer, Colletta, Lelewel, Karamsin, however different their subjects, their conception and treatment of historical matter (though none of them, as far as thoroughness and compass or the sifting of the material are concerned, can be compared to the best of German historians,) may also serve as models of style which our students will do well to study.

That we do not overestimate ourselves when we assert the possession of this gift or faculty of historical search and prescience, we can prove to the satisfaction of all. Books written by foreigners on the condition, history or literature of a nation are usually put aside by the reading public of that people interested, as unworthy of attention, because it is, and often justly, supposed that nothing either new or reliable can be learned from such treatises. Of course, De Tocqueville's *Democracy in America*, Guizot's *History of the English Revolution*, and the works of Ticknor and Prescott on

Spain, are exceptions. But how many more German historians have depicted foreign nations in a manner at once new, and satisfactory to the most enlightened judges among such nations?

Chancellor Gladstone, on whose table I found Huber's History of the English Universities, told me that this work was really indispensable to him, and that it far excelled any treatise that had been written in England on the same subject. Gneist's work on English law and constitution, the two great historical works of Lappenberg (continued by Pauli) and Ranke, which are supplementary to each other, contain so much that is new and original that the native student can not dispense with them. The same is true of Ranke's History of France. The only satisfactory history of Portugal is by Schäfer, and the only good History of Russia during the last two centuries is to be found in the works of Hermann.

Hegel's history of Italian municipal law has never been equaled by any Italian writer on the same subject. So Savigny's history of the Roman Law School is acknowledged, on both sides of the Alps, to be a work which has never been surpassed by any native writer, and has passed through two translations. To the works of Schaffener and Stein on French law, etc., will readily be accorded the first place among books treating of the same subjects; so will every Russian prefer to learn of his own country from the studies of Von Haxthausen.

Von Schack's history of the Dramatic Literature of Spain has well supplied a want long felt on the other side of the Pyrenees. Whoever compares the German and English studies on Shakspeare will certainly prefer the former as the more thorough. To the literature of the great poet who is the pride and glory of Italy, nearly all the civilized nations of the world have made valuable contributions. But no one who compares the productions of Witte, of Megele, and the commentary of the King of Saxony, with similar Italian efforts, will hesitate in according the palm to the Germans. Did not Count Cæsare Balbo, before the royal work on Dante appeared, warn his countrymen to beware and produce a commentary worthy of the great poet, or else one would be written by some scholar of that remarkable nation "which was gradually mastering every field of science properly our own."

These productions—the blossoms and fruit of German scientific culture—were mostly nurtured and matured in our High Schools, the proper seed-beds and workshops for all branches of knowledge and research. There only we find the ability to discern and master the immense materials for our scientific production.

The obstacles to the coöperation of Catholics and Protestants in the Universities, necessitated by the events of German history and the state of science and literature, had, until recently, appeared to be insurmountable ; it was attempted at Erfurt and for a short time in Heidelberg, but it proved the ruin of the former. Now it has become more and more the rule, and where theological faculties of both confessions exist side by side, they have, as has been the case in Tübingen and Bonn, derived unmistakeable benefit from the combination. Pennalism has been abolished, and, although there is much to be done, we can not deny that the number of real earnest students is much greater than in any former period.

Our High Schools are now performing a quadruple task : (1,) they afford a superior education ; (2,) they train a large number of men for the public service ; (3,) they educate our future teachers, and (4,) they constitute learned fellowship, devoted to the advancement of science and literature. By their success in these difficult, and by many pronounced incompatible functions, they have demonstrated that these operations could not only go on side by side, but could exercise a wholesome influence upon each other, and that searchers after new acquisitions could at the same time prove most useful teachers. As he who can not enrich science will not be able to perpetuate it, so he alone is qualified to teach scientifically who has proved himself an independent searcher, and is not content with the mere compilation and remodeling of material furnished by others :

He who lives in universal history,
Who works and succeeds in his time,
Is alone worthy to speak and teach.

Does not this utterance of Goethe mean that the historical faculty consecrates man to be the priest of science and the teacher of youth ? and do we not recognize in four Germans of our time the representatives of this historical spirit—in Niebuhr, Alexander von Humboldt, Jacob Grimm, and Karl Ritter ? It was Niebuhr's brilliant power of combination, coupled with his historical insight, and creative faculty, that enabled him to discern and construct a history of Rome in spite of the obscurity in which Livy had left it, and enabled us to distinguish between truth and the dimmed picture of the historian.

Humboldt is a model of the German historical sense, not only because he was a successful historical inquirer, but because he pursued the same method as a student of natural science that he did as a historian—a critical observation of all the facts, however minute,

the collection and grouping together of all the details, and their concentration, like rays in one focus, the investigation of their inner connection, whether according to moral or physical laws, the construction of unity from variety, and again the evolution of single details from this discovered unity. Thus in Humboldt the investigation of history was joined to the observation of nature, and each was elevated by the other.

Through a similar power of investigation and construction, Ritter created a new science, combining geography, ethnology, and history, hitherto unconnected, into one whole, by demonstrating the influence which surrounding nature exercises upon man, and upon nations and their history.

In Jacob Grimm, lastly, we admire another development of the historical sense, as in him the talent to understand the very soul, the inmost life of the German people, in language and custom, in legend, myth and law, and to express the same with an almost self-denying objectivity, was cultivated to the highest perfection.

But we may discern the creative power of the German "historical sense" better in the present state of science and literature than in the individual instance. The Germans have found a rich field for the exercise of their peculiar talent, in Christian theology—which, being in itself a historical fact, must be studied and construed accordingly. Germany has therefore become the home of a classic school of theology, from which the theologians of other nations, particularly England and America, have drawn assistance.

This has produced in jurisprudence the historical school, founded by Hugo and Savigny, and through it caused the acknowledgment of the principle that law is not the product of arbitrary legislation, but a part of the life of the people, produced by their innate impulses and their whole past, and that a proper estimate of law is impossible without a knowledge of the real condition from which it emanates or to which it relates. The comparative jurisprudence of our day teaches us to understand our own by the study of Roman law, and to study both in the light of a common comprehensive organism. If jurisprudence will be mindful of the beautiful and majestic definition of the Romans that "she is the science of the just and the unjust, the knowledge of the divine and human," then she will acknowledge more and more distinctively that all human law finds its true foundation in divine justice, that it is closely connected with theology and ethics, and can not dispense with their assistance.

In the development of political science in our day, a new faculty,

claiming equal importance and close relations with all others, collateral to jurisprudence and identical with it in many branches, has been established. This combination of politics and statistics with constitutional policy and administrative law into one complex system, which we will designate as public economy or State science (*State-science*), appeared at first to foreigners to be a German idiosyncrasy, because it was treated in our peculiar German way as a science, not admitting of *a priori* abstractions. Politics will now be treated in our Universities as a part of the philosophy of political history, which extracts from the sum of historical events and phenomena the universal, and from the mass of historical examples the rule; and is, in all political questions, ever mindful of the diversity of nations and times.

In medicine, also, have German professors most clearly perceived the necessity of historical research and treatment. In consequence the work of Kurt Sprengel appeared early, and the science of medicine has since been treated in numerous works, and the inner connection of the different system and methods been explained. These works have become more valuable since it became evident that an historical pathology or an historical therapeutics, a history of diseases and of methods of treatment, can only be conceived and produced out of the universal history of civilization.

Turning from these sciences to philology, we may be allowed, without undervaluing the productions of England or France, to assert that mainly the historical sense of the Germans has given to this department an importance never before conceived, although Germany has always had able philologists. But only since the times of Heyne has philology attained the rank of a science. In the great Encyclopedia begun by Pauly there is a monument to the diligence of German philologists, such as no other science and no other nation can boast.

In view of what has been done, we must acknowledge that "the interest in philosophy has given way to a deeper interest in its history." The systems created by the constructive method of which Germany was so productive for thirty years, have collapsed and their schools are dissolved; the assertion very generally made not long ago, that final perfection in philosophy was attained in Hegel's system, causes a smile to-day, and the claim of exclusive authority for any system would be received in the same manner. This very circumstance, which has deterred many from studying philosophy, should stimulate the student to explore its history. It has not been felt that where there is no history of philosophy there can be no

true philosophy, and although the constructive philosophers have felt the necessity of canvassing history, yet they have usually conducted their researches in order to corroborate their own views rather than to ascertain the truth. Still we may discover a vast improvement in the method of treating this subject, and we may hope to see it occupy a high place among the essentials of a superior education.

In the province of universal history our Universities pursue again the double method, by the application of all existing agencies of knowledge, and by the discovery and use of new ones, to enlarge, purify and sift the material of it by a close comparison and verification; 2d, to comprehend thoroughly all facts thus gained and established, and to reproduce them in one refined and perfected whole.

Renovated by Humboldt and Ritter, geography has shown the mutual relations between the globe and its inhabitants, the influence of geographical conditions upon the life and fate of nations, and it is now received as an acceptable assistant in historical studies. Comparative philology, which treats the language of nations as their oldest records, has thrown light on the ethnological connection of nations, and promises still further disclosures. As not only events, but probabilities, are important in the history of civilization, a new field has been opened by German research in this direction, which, although as yet but partially productive, on account of the difficulty of sifting and grouping the material, promises to be of the greatest importance.

The history of literature has also been elevated from its position as a mere chronological record of publications to its true sphere, a history of the ideas which produced the books, and of the forms in which they are embodied.

Upon such foundations, in some future time, will a true philosophy of history be reared, a result which German scholars, since the time of Frederick Schlegel and Steffens and Görres, have repeatedly attempted to realize—as one of the most precious results of our Universities. The false system of Fichte and Hegel, which forces all the rich materials of history into one scheme, and through the mechanism of logical construction, puts, in the place of that individual liberty every where so manifest in history, a rigid necessity, is done away forever. Hereafter the philosophy of history, as the most difficult but possibly the most valuable product of academical teaching, will give proof that moral forces shape and rule the course of events. She will follow up these ideas and trace their embodiments and effects through all periods and transformations, and in-

dicare every where the transparent plan of a divine will in the government of the world—which alone renders history intelligible.

During the present century the rapid growth of the daily press—which in all free countries has become a necessity as clamorous as our physical wants—has imposed on the University a new duty. To the continuous, and at any one time, hardly perceptible influence of this new agent in making a controlling public opinion—as irresistible as the drop which hollows and wears away the solid rock—our University men, as the acknowledged custodians of scientific knowledge, and the habitual respect in which they are held, by means of numerous scientific and literary periodicals which they almost universally conduct, do, and can continue to, temper and direct the popular judgment on all questions in which science and scientific method of investigation enter. That our Universities enjoy this respect and confidence of the nation is evident from the fact, that in the national assembly of 1848, the only assembly ever elected by the whole nation, one hundred and eighteen professors were members. The result indeed showed that our professors are not yet trained to mold the chaotic elements of a political assembly, but the fact of their being there, evinced the confidence of the people in their knowledge and character. And as in the end, great principles, and not immediate material interests—agitate and control the world, the Universities must justify this confidence by training the advocates and representatives of those principles.

And now, gentlemen students, what better instruction for you can I draw from this survey of the development of our Universities, than to impress on you that the chief power and blessing of your academical training, whatever faculty you may choose, will be in the acquisition and cultivation of that historical sense, whose representative men I have brought before you to-day. As professors, we stand in the relation not only of givers, but of receivers. We offer such knowledge as we have gathered, sifted out and tested, but we gladly receive from your inquiries and attention that renovating strength which keeps us from relaxing in our search for and use of fitting material for our instructions. We approach you with the authority of teachers, but we earnestly desire that in the progress of your studies, you may more and more dispense with the need of this authority. We offer the best we have; but it is more than possible that errors and half-truths are intermixed with what we would fain believe to be the pure gold of absolute truth. Swear not therefore in the words of the master, though you trust in his guidance, so long as he ceases not from the daily labor of testing

and correcting his own knowledge, and does not allow himself, from intellectual indolence, to become the victim of his own illusions and the propagator of views found to be erroneous. The chief gain in your academic education consists not so much in the acquisition of a certain sum of knowledge, or special facts, or maxims, but in the encouragement and cultivation of those intellectual powers through which you may overcome any imbibed or self-made illusions, and discover the truth by the independent exercise of your own powers. If, during the period of your student life, you have made this precious acquisition, then even the errors you may possibly have absorbed will be to your advantage, because, while with steadily increasing knowledge and maturity of mind you detect, combat and conquer them, you exercise your intellect most beneficially, and come forth from these inner struggles, strengthened and enriched by experience.

In this solemn moment, which may never recur to me, let me address a word particularly to you who have undertaken the study of theology. You have chosen a science which claims, and must claim, that all others lead to her and rest on her as their foundation and corner-stone. But this primacy is only due if she makes use of the assistance of her sister sciences. She should not, with invalid delicacy, protect herself from every fresh breeze of research, or deny all the teachings of history which may not please her. Life and death depend upon the fact that her disciples preserve in its highest purity that "historical sense" which is shown in the acknowledgment of all foreign superiorities and blessings, and in the application of all truth which may be found in other spheres. Let us practice the art of discerning correctly the genuine from the spurious coin of the spiritual world, of detecting truth from error, but let us not condemn from mere appearance whole sciences, as though they were possessed of devils. I apprehend no danger to you from the enlargement of your mental horizon. You will certainly reject any doctrine which dethrones the living God from his seat in the conscience and religion, to be replaced by the abstractions of pantheism. At the same time no system which openly repudiates the liberty of the human will, or leads to such denial, can exercise any influence over your mind, as this liberty is rooted too deeply and securely in your own self-consciousness to be ever undermined by the most subtle scepticism. Least of all will you be tempted to admit materialism, or allow yourself to be persuaded that man is but a finer organized ape and the senses mere secretions of the brain.

Let me recommend, as a maxim of conduct: "*Theologus sum, nihil divini a me alienum puto*"—nothing divine, no truth, as all truth emanates originally from God—shall be foreign to us. It is only necessary to possess the right magnet to detect and extract the truth from the worthless sands which surround and often hide it. Thus conceived the great men of the Alexandrian school, in their solution of the problem of Greek philosophy and natural science—though our task is more difficult on account of the immeasurable and daily increasing material on which we are to act. The whole study of humanity in all its branches—philology, antiquity, anthropology, comparative history, religion, jurisprudence, philosophy, and their several histories—all claim your attention and demand that you must master their mysteries. It is as in Mohammed's paradise, where the first tree calls out to the blessed one, "Break my fruit," and forthwith the second cries, "My fruits are sweeter." The most eager thirst for knowledge must succumb to the weight of the gigantic task of partaking of all. But what is impossible for one, may be, at least partly, attained by the combined efforts and labors of many congenial workers.

Two hundred years ago, a great Italian closed his life with this aspiration for the republic in which he lived, "*Esto perpetua.*" With the same wish for the republic of science in which I have fellowship, and for which I have labored for forty years, I exclaim, "*ESTO PERPETUA.*"



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NOTE.—The special report, to which the above index belongs, embraces only such chapters in a comprehensive survey of national education in different countries as were prepared in the office of the Commissioner of Education subsequent to his annual report in 1865 to supplement and complete the work begun by him before his connection with the office, the details of which, when ready for publication, will be seen in the following analysis of subjects. The closing part relating to American States will embrace a comparative view of these systems in reference to the condition and improvement of our several State and city systems.

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